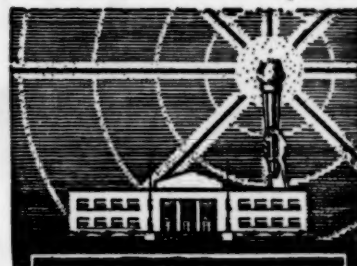


THE SOCIAL STUDIES



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1909 — 1959

A PERIODICAL
FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS

VOLUME L. NUMBER 6

NOVEMBER, 1959

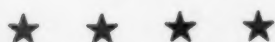
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VOLUME L, NUMBER 6

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As the Editor Sees It

Last month we said we would continue in the current issue our statement of belief as to a suitable curriculum for all pupils in the secondary schools of a democratic society. We are pursuing this subject at the suggestion of the Editor of the *Bulletin* of the Council for Basic Education, which appears to oppose the teaching of anything in secondary schools except the traditional college preparatory subjects.

The type of curriculum which we propose may be divided into two parts, which we will call Common and Selective. The Common group of subjects comprises those which we feel every pupil, regardless of ability or objectives, should master:

- A—English usage,—the mechanics of grammar, spelling, punctuation and sentence structure; clarity in expression, written and oral; and the ability to read with understanding material of average adult difficulty.
- B—Courses in United States History and World History, with the stress being laid on major lines of development leading to consequences of demonstrable importance today.
- C—Mathematics,—the ability to perform accurately and intelligently the basic operations of arithmetic; the understanding and use of the common geometric relationships; the understanding and use of simple formulas and graphs; and the ability to estimate and think in numbers with reasonable accuracy.
- D—The basic principles of the sciences, such as are usually taught in General Science, with particular stress on the methods of scientific investigation and proof.
- E—Courses in physical world geography, and the basic principles of economic life in a free enterprise system.

F—Basic concepts of good art form and good music, both popular and classical.

G—Physical education and health.

The Selective part of the curriculum would be open to any pupil, but his choices within it would be affected by his innate learning capacity, his desires, and his plans for the future. Here is where careful and understanding guidance would be needed. Within this part there should be available:

- A—English composition and literature,—the development of good writing and reading habits. It should be required of every pupil, but be varied according to circumstances.
- B—Mathematics from algebra through analytical geometry.
- C—Biology, Chemistry and Physics.
- D—A three or four-year sequence in a foreign language; if a modern language, the stress should be on conversational use.
- E—For pupils who cannot, or should not, anticipate post-high school education, some type of training in a salable skill. Without this opportunity, many pupils would leave school early and become social problems.
- F—Art and Music—opportunities for those with talent or interest to develop further their skills or their appreciation.

How the Common and Selective parts of the curriculum should be offered, in terms of courses and sequences, must of necessity vary according to the type and size of school and community. In our opinion, the first requisite is to keep every child in school until he has mastered the Common learnings; this in itself is not easy in many places and with

(Continued on page 240)

Soviet Theory and Practice in Education

BY MARGUERITE J. FISHER

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There are many Asians and Africans in the Soviet Union these days, invited by the Russians or sent there by their governments to study the Soviet educational system. This system has caught their attention, not only because of such spectacular achievements as the sputniks, but because in forty years' time European Russia has advanced from a nation in which the majority were illiterate, to the present almost one hundred per cent enrollment in schools. It is no wonder that Indians, Burmese, Ceylonese and others, where 80 to 85 per cent of the people are illiterate, are deeply impressed by what the Russians have accomplished in forty years.

The organization of the public schools follows the same general pattern throughout Russia. The child enters school at the age of seven, and remains in elementary school for the next seven years. Then there are three years of secondary school, which the student would normally finish at the age of seventeen, thus completing ten years of compulsory free schooling. Recently, however, a new policy has been instituted, to be carried out in the next three to five years, which will require the majority of students after eight years of schooling to go directly into factories, workshops, and farms. If they wish to continue their education they will be permitted to take courses at night. A second group will enter three year secondary schools to learn trades or technical skills, such as auto mechanics, nursing and the like, but this schooling will be combined with work in factories and on farms. Finally, a minority consisting of the best students, especially those gifted in science, mathematics, technology, languages and the arts, will be given an intensified high school or preparatory training and then go directly to the univer-

sities and technical institutes. But even these privileged students will be required to spend some time in farm or factory work.

In an interview with Comrade Maisky, director of pedagogical training for Stalingrad, we asked the reasons for this new policy. Comrade Maisky, as well as others whom we queried, gave these answers. First it would eliminate the resentment of workers and peasants against privileged students who had formerly gone to universities and training institutes, without ever having to do the work on factories and on farms common to the great majority of the people. Furthermore, practical experience in daily labor would give the students and future leaders a sense of identification with the people, an understanding and appreciation of their problems. Finally, the Russians had found that young people who went directly on to higher education at seventeen or eighteen were too young and inexperienced. After an interim of sharing the lives of workers and peasants, Comrade Maisky assured us, they would be more mature and better prepared for the rigors of higher education.

What are the most noticeable differences between Soviet and American schools? For one thing, the children work harder and study more difficult subjects at an earlier age. The seventh graders at a school we visited in Rostov were studying history, mathematics, physics, biology, chemistry, grammar, music, gymnastics, English and Marxism. Secondary school graduates have studied biology and physics five years, chemistry four years, astronomy one year, and mathematics ten years. In contrast, in the United States fewer than one-third of high school graduates have had even one year of chemistry; only one-fourth have taken physics; and only one-

seventh have had advanced mathematics. We inquired of teachers concerning the average amount of home work. "Two to three hours each night," was the reply.

In the second place, the Soviets have a more ruthless attitude toward the dull or lazy student. Even before the end of elementary school the bright and dull begin to follow separate paths. The latter concentrate more on vocational studies to prepare them for a life on farms and in factories. The exceptionally bright pupils may be placed in schools attached to universities. But the most drastic separation occurs at the end of secondary schooling. Stiff examinations separate those who are eligible for the universities and higher education from the remainder who generally have two alternatives: to go to work or into the armed forces.

A third difference lies in the much greater stress on science in the Soviet schools. It has been said that "Soviet rule has bestowed on science all the authority of which it deprived religion." Approximately forty per cent of the curriculum in the higher grades is taken up by science and mathematics. In a recent cross-section poll in the high schools of an American city, the students were asked their opinion of "scientists." Twenty-five per cent thought scientists were "odd." But not in Russia! The scientist is a revered and respected person with high prestige and many privileges denied to most of the people. The scientist often has a larger apartment, a country house or dacha, a car, vacations at Black Sea resorts with all expenses paid, and servants. A visiting British scientist, when asked what his Russian colleagues talked about when he visited them in their homes, replied: "Their servant problem!"

Languages, also, occupy a much more important place than in American schools. A foreign language is begun in the fifth grade, and over half the pupils select English. As the tourist walks about in the Russian cities he is soon confronted with tangible evidence that the youngsters are studying English. Teenagers will accost him in streets, parks, and outside hotels, asking in unmistakable English: "Have you any chewing gum?" and

"Have you any Tarzan books?" There are three things which seem to have made more impact on the people behind the Iron Curtain than any of the efforts of the U. S. State Department—chewing gum, Tarzan books, and rock and roll music. We developed a distinct feeling that the then Secretary of State John Foster Dulles was not aware of the potentialities of these weapons in the Cold War.

One day on a collective farm near Stalin-grad we were talking to the farmer in charge of poultry. He proudly showed us a snapshot of his son, a young fellow of sixteen. "He is excellent in languages," said the farmer happily, "and the government has sent him to Moscow to study at the Institute of Foreign Languages. He will be there many years, and the government will pay for everything." Earlier in the trip we had visited this Institute, and learned that instruction was given in over a hundred languages. We asked the young student who guided us around the Institute what language he was studying. "Urdu," he replied. We resorted to the encyclopaedia to learn that Urdu is spoken in Pakistan and North-western India.

A fifth difference is found in the matter of discipline. Soviet teachers believe that it is as important to reward the good child as to punish the bad one. The schools stress honor lists, special titles, and medals and badges for successful performance. "Do better than the next fellow," seems to permeate the atmosphere. At the top of the list are the *Young Pioneers*, from eight to fourteen years, an elite group of youngsters honored, respected and envied by the other children. The Young Pioneers are easily distinguished from the others by the bright red scarves around their necks, a conspicuous badge of superiority. The Pioneers set high standards which the others are anxious to emulate.

One morning in Moscow when we were walking towards Red Square in the heart of the city, we noticed that the busy traffic had stopped, brought to a halt by policemen stationed at cross-sections. No cars, trucks,

trams, or pedestrians were moving. With anxious thoughts of war, revolution and the like, we inquired nervously of the guide what had happened. "Traffic has been stopped to honor the Young Pioneers returning from camp," she replied in a matter-of-fact tone. At that moment an open lorry appeared, carrying a brass band playing loud music. Following the band came seven bus-loads of cheering, laughing youngsters, each with the bright red scarf of the Pioneers. The band and the buses turned into Red Square, circled slowly around and then went on their way, while the heavy stream of traffic in the heart of Moscow waited to pay them honor.

"Do teachers ever strike the children or inflict corporal punishment?" we asked. "Oh no," was the indignant reply. "A teacher who struck a child would be severely reprimanded." But the parents, as well as the teacher, are held responsible for a child's undesirable behavior, and thus, in contrast with some American schools, parental pressure reenforces rather than frustrates the teacher's authority.

We had a good opportunity to observe discipline under difficult conditions when we waited in the Rostov airport for four hours one morning. Our plane, scheduled to depart at eight, could not leave until eleven because of bad weather. With us in the airport waiting room during those four dragging hours was a teacher with ten youngsters about nine or ten years old. Each starched and scrubbed child held an enormous floral wreath almost as large as the youngster. The teacher had to keep the children quiet and the floral wreaths in good condition during the long wait for the plane. "Where are they going?" we inquired. "The children are not departing," the teacher replied. "This is a group of Young Pioneers from my school, sent to welcome a trade union delegation from India which will arrive on the plane." During the whole four hours the children waited quietly and cheerfully. We gave them candy, with the teacher's permission, and each little boy and girl got up and made a formal and dignified bow of thanks.

"How do you manage to keep them so well-

behaved?" we asked the attractive, motherly teacher. "I remind them that they have been selected as leaders," she answered, "and they must set an example for Soviet youth." When the plane finally arrived the youngsters marched solemnly out to meet the waiting dignitaries, and each child recited a carefully memorized speech of welcome in Hindi as he placed a wreath around the neck of an Indian trade unionist.

Not only the Young Pioneers but all the school children we observed in the Soviet Union, even those in small village schools, were neat and scrupulously clean. In fact, we were impressed by the emphasis on cleanliness in general, especially in the cities. Moscow is certainly one of the cleanest cities in the world. Some American tourist friends of ours learned this lesson the hard way. They had driven in their car from Brest on the Polish border, a long and dusty trip. The next morning they started out to see Moscow in their car which was still covered with the dust and dirt of the trip from Brest. Before they had gone five blocks they were arrested by the police and taken to court. In fear and trembling they wondered with what heinous offense they would be charged. "You have a dirty car," said the judge sternly. "You must pay a fine of twenty rubles."

In spite of the well-organized schools and the obviously effective results, there are some features of Soviet education inherently unsuitable for free nations. For one thing, there is the centralized uniformity of the school system with approximately the same methods, curriculum and standards all over Russia. There are few optional courses or electives, even in the universities. No books can be ordered by local libraries except through Moscow. There are Ministers of Education in the individual Soviet republics, but they are responsible to the central government. There is little room for individualized experiment, or modification and adaptation in accordance with local sentiments. Such centralization has undoubtedly been useful in raising a largely illiterate population to one hundred per cent school enrollment in forty years, but having reached this

level, it may well turn out to be a detriment to further progress.

The stress on collectivistic rather than individualistic goals and motivations is another point likely to bother the American observer. The lack of privacy, the emphasis on groups, the omnipresent subordination of the individual student to the state and its needs,—all this leaves the Westerner with mixed feelings. One of our guides in Lenin-grad had two young sons of eight and ten years. "Do they have a dog to play with?" I asked casually, being a dog lover of long standing. "Oh no," she replied firmly. "Such a pet dog, for a city family, would perform no useful task. It would be a parasite, taking up money and time which could be put to better use for our Soviet society." I said nothing, but silently gave thanks for the annual Westminster Kennel Show in New York City with its 3,000 pedigreed parasites of capitalism.

Acknowledging the general superiority of Soviet schools in mathematics, sciences and languages, it is in the area of social science that their greatest weakness lies. There is, of course, no attempt to encourage independent or critical thinking. The teacher does not ask for opinions, debates or differences of interpretation. The pupils repeat what the teacher has said or the information given in the textbook. History and current affairs are presented in terms of labels and slogans, good labels and bad labels, black and white, Fascist Imperialist Capitalists versus Peace-loving Peoples' Communist Democracies. On the train to Kiev we were talking with some university students. "Why does the United States threaten the peace of the world by sending troops to Lebanon?" they asked. We replied: "Because our help was requested by the Lebanese government, to protect itself from subversive insurrection. And besides, the Russian government did something far worse in sending troops into Hungary—your troops slaughtered thousands of Hungarians." The students thought this over for a moment, and then said triumphantly: "Oh, but the circumstances were very different. It was the People's Democratic Government

of Hungary that requested the aid of Russian troops, to put down a fascist counter-revolution instigated by imperialist plotters from abroad." This is the explanation of the Hungarian Revolution accepted without question by almost a billion people in the Communist bloc, from East Berlin to the borders of Hong Kong.

This constant thinking in terms of good or bad labels exerts a kind of hypnotic effect to blind the Russians to many things. "We are all equal," said a man on the Volga-Don boat. "We have no class inequality such as exists under capitalism." I pointed out to him that there were three decks on the boat, that the people in third class on the bottom level were sleeping on the floor and eating food from paper bags in their knapsacks, while we were in first class on the top deck, sleeping in comfortable beds and served excellent food and wines on silver and damask in the dining-room. But he only stared at me resentfully and discontinued the conversation.

This uncritical thinking in labels or slogans is facilitated by the absence of information concerning the rest of the world. No foreign language newspapers are sold anywhere except Communist papers. "I'd like to see an English language newspaper," I said to our guide in Stalingrad. "Of course," she replied, and brought a paper from a newsstand. It was the *London Daily Worker*. "Aren't there any others?" I asked. She looked puzzled. "There was another—the *American Daily Worker*, but it is no longer published. Anyway, this is better."

Since the only available English language newspaper from abroad was the *London Daily Worker*, inevitably this was the paper read by American tourists travelling about Russia. It was an entertaining sight to see these tourists, especially the prosperous business-man types, sitting in the dining-room at breakfast time, absorbed in the *Daily Worker*. "Can't find the stock quotations," complained a Chicago manufacturer when he joined us at breakfast on his first morning in Moscow.

Another questionable feature of the schools and universities, as well as life in

general, is the almost religious adulation of past and present leaders. Enormous statues, paintings and photographs of Lenin and Stalin dominate school rooms, public halls, lobbies and reception rooms. From the day he enters school to the day he dies, the Russian sees these figures looming in the background. Inevitably, he comes to regard them almost as gods. We asked a girl student on the train to Minsk how she felt when she heard the news of Stalin's death. "I cried for two days," she said solemnly. "Stalin was my whole life. I owed everything to him. But my sister—it was such a shock that she was in bed for a week. She became hysterical and broke dishes."

There are three aspects of Soviet education which we could well afford to copy. One is the tremendous respect for learning and education, readily seen in all segments of the population. Everyone seems to want to read, to learn more and more. People walking along the streets, up and down escalators, and on trams and subways, are absorbed in books, usually serious books. There are book kiosks and libraries everywhere. On a collective farm near Kiev we visited a large dairy barn, equipped with electrical machinery, and with milkmaids and milkmen in clean white uniforms. But at one end of the dairy was a library and reading room, filled with workers reading and studying between chores!

This almost passionate respect and desire for learning makes the teacher's and the professor's task much easier. There are six qualified applicants for teachers' colleges for every person who can be admitted, due not so much to the money they earn as the prestige and honor with which the teaching profession is regarded.

As a college professor, I ranked high in their estimation. "What is your profession?" they asked whenever we engaged them in conversation. When I told them they looked at me with approval and respect. But my travelling companion was a business woman with real estate holdings. Politely, they in-

quired as to her profession. "Capitalist and landlord," she replied truthfully. Invariably, they drew back in shock and surprise, almost hesitant to continue the conversation. One of our guides in Kiev drew me aside one day and said diffidently: "How is it that you, a professor, are travelling with that woman?"

Another admirable feature is the way in which school children and students are inculcated with civic pride. Their faces beam and their eyes glow as they proudly show you their opera house, their subway, their medical clinic, their university. "As good as you have in America," they often add. Sometimes this civic pride takes a defensive form, with rather humorous consequences. We spent an entire day tramping over the huge hydro-electric dam being constructed on the Volga at Stalingrad. Again and again we were told, with fierce pride, "bigger than anything in America." At dinner that night, as we ate with our two guides, I happened to remark carelessly about one of the dishes: "What tiny meatballs." One of the guides said instantly: "But we have larger meatballs, too—bigger than those in America!"

Finally, Americans might well ponder the fact that all higher education in the Soviet Union is free, with most of the students paid a stipend while they pursue their courses. For the top graduates of secondary school who are eligible for higher education, there are no financial worries. Even the medical, dental and engineering schools are entirely free, dependent solely upon brains and not on father's bank account. One day as we waited for a ferry to cross the Volga, we talked with a group of students on the pier. "What stipend are students paid at your university in America?" they asked. I changed the subject as quickly as possible.

There is thus no waste of brains and talent, on financial grounds, in the Soviet educational system. Considering the number of good students who drop out of college and graduate school in America because of lack of money, here is an area in which the Soviets can claim genuine superiority.

A Study in Historical Controversy

BY JOSEPH E. WALKER

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For more than a century the search for the true and complete story of what took place in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, in May, 1775 has interested professional and amateur historians. In fact it is probably of more importance as a study in historical method than as an event of history. There are two major problems to be considered: First, what are the contents of the document adopted at a meeting in Charlotte; and second, did this action constitute a declaration of independence from England?

The Scotch-Irish people of Western North Carolina were in a restless state after the Regulator troubles with the Colonial Government. Since the Battle of Alamance the royal authority had virtually ceased to exist in the west. Even in the east, Governor Josiah Martin felt that his safety required his withdrawal to a British warship anchored in the mouth of the Cape Fear River.

In Mecklenburg County the people had held several meetings to consider their situation and to discuss steps for maintaining peace and order. Colonel Thomas Polk asked each captain's company of the militia to send two delegates to Charlotte in May, 1775. More came than the eighteen requested. The names of about thirty men are associated with the subsequent event.

While the delegates were in session, news arrived of the Battle of Lexington. The men of Mecklenburg County responded by adopting a series of resolutions stating their views of the present status of the British government in the county and making provision for local administration until some action should be taken by the provincial legislature or by the Continental Congress.

These resolutions were in accord with article eleven of the American Association

adopted the year before by the First Continental Congress. Doctor Ephraim Brevard, clerk of the committee, was the probable author. But Thomas Polk may have furnished many of the ideas to his son-in-law.

The resolves were adopted and read to the people in front of the court house. Captain James Jack of Charlotte was engaged to carry the paper to Philadelphia. There it was to be delivered to the three North Carolina delegates to the Second Continental Congress—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes and Richard Caswell. Captain Jack stopped in Salisbury, and the Mecklenburg message was read to the crowd gathered there for the meeting of the court. It was received with enthusiasm here.

Caswell, Hooper and Hewes felt that the movement in Mecklenburg County was premature. They still wanted to explore the possibilities of reconciliation. So they did not make the paper public. They did send a joint letter back to Charlotte in which they complimented the patriotic spirit of the people and urged that order be preserved.

Another copy of the resolution was sent to the Provincial Congress meeting at Hillsborough. Here it was referred to a committee, and no further action was taken.

The Mecklenburg "Resolves" are known to have appeared in at least three newspapers within the next month. The royal governors of North Carolina and Georgia each sent copies and comments to Lord Dartmouth, Secretary of State for the Colonies.

It is not now known what records of the Charlotte meeting were kept. Whatever they may have been, they were placed in the keeping of John McKnitt Alexander in whose house they remained until April 1800. At that time the home was destroyed by fire, and

the papers were not saved. Alexander attempted during the next few months to reconstruct the resolutions from memory. In the process he apparently injected some parts of the national declaration adopted the next year in Philadelphia. He recalled May 20, 1775 as the date of the action. The importance of this date will appear later.

The Mecklenburg action became a local legend but was so little known outside of the county that when Williamson's *History of North Carolina* was published in 1812, it did not mention the resolutions. But local pride would save them from oblivion and raise them to the position of national prominence in the next few years.

Public interest began with a chance reference in William Wirt's *Life of Patrick Henry*, published in 1817, to a possible declaration of independence before 1776 in Virginia or Massachusetts. Both of these states at once claimed the honor, and they were joined by Maryland. Massachusetts pointed to action in Suffolk County in September, 1774. Virginia cited the Fort Gower Address of the officers of Lord Dunmore's army on November, 1774. Harford County, Maryland, revived copies of a manifesto of March 22, 1775. But upon examination it was clear that none of these could be a declaration of independence.¹

Two North Carolina Congressmen, Senator Nathaniel Macon and Representative William Davidson, made a claim for their state as the cradle of independence. They had no visible evidence to support their assertion and wrote to friends in Charlotte for some documentary proof. Little did they know what a chain of action and reaction was to be built from this request.

One of the letters from Washington brought an answer from Doctor Joseph McKnitt Alexander, son of John McKnitt Alexander. With his letter he enclosed a document from his father's papers, but not in his father's handwriting. The author, or copyist, of this paper has never been established. Doctor Alexander then sent another copy of this paper and some remarks of his own to the *Raleigh Register and North Carolina*

Gazette in whose issue of April 30, 1819 it appeared in print. This publication touched off a controversy which was to rage for more than a century and is still not resolved to the complete satisfaction of all historians.

Of special interest in the subsequent discussion are the following two of the five articles:²

2. Resolved, That we the citizens of Mecklenburg County, do hereby dissolve the political bands which have connected us to the Mother Country, and hereby absolve ourselves from all allegiance to the British Crown, and abjure all political connection, contract or association with that Nation, who have wantonly trampled on our rights and liberties — and inhumanly shed the innocent blood of Americans at Lexington.

3. Resolved, That we do hereby declare ourselves a free and independent People, are and of right ought to be, a sovereign and self-governing Association, under the control of no power other than that of our God and the General Government of the Congress; to the maintenance of which independence, we solemnly pledge to each other our mutual cooperation, our lives, our fortunes, and our most sacred honor.

A number of newspapers copied this article from the *Raleigh Register*. One reprinting appeared in the *Essex Register* of Salem, Massachusetts on June 5, 1819. An interested reader was John Adams. He sent a copy to Thomas Jefferson and enclosed a letter in which he stated, "The genuine sense of America at that moment was never so well expressed before, nor since." Later Adams expressed his doubt of the genuineness of this declaration. But in his letter he seemed to be taking a malicious delight in calling attention to the similarity of wording in this and Jefferson's statement of 1776.

Jefferson replied with a little pique that it was strange that no one had known of this Mecklenburg action in 1776. He gave as his opinion that it was "apocryphal" and "spurious." He considered it an "unjustifiable quiz" to raise a question of his honesty in the implication that he had copied his wording from an earlier document without giving any credit.

Within the next ten years three other copies of the "Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence" were made public. They are known as the Garden, Martin and Davie copies. The first two are very similar in wording and appeared in histories published

at this time. They differed somewhat from the *Raleigh Register* copy. The Davie is a mutilated manuscript which contained only part of the *Raleigh Register* resolutions — omitting the ones which are of special interest as having made a declaration of independence. This copy was in the handwriting of John McKnitt Alexander.

The Adams-Jefferson correspondence did not become public until 1829. The legislature of North Carolina then set up a committee to make inquiry regarding the Mecklenburg action and to offer proof of its authenticity or falsity. This committee made inquiry of those persons still living who could recall the events in Charlotte in 1775. The testimony was vague and differed somewhat. But on one thing all of them seemed in agreement — they had declared their independence. Several of the men were certain that there were errors in the names of the leaders as recorded in the *Raleigh Register*. They recalled that Colonel Thomas Polk, not Colonel Adam Alexander, had issued the call for the meeting, and that Ephraim Brevard had been the secretary instead of John McKnitt Alexander. This was disturbing, but not sufficiently so to stop the legislature from ordering the finding published.

In 1833 Peter Force discovered some very important documentary support. He found that the colonial records contained several dispatches from Royal Governor Josiah Martin in which he referred to treasonous action by the people of Mecklenburg County. One letter reported the enclosure of a copy of the *Cape Fear Mercury* which had printed a set of resolutions from Charlotte. Still later it was found that Governor James Wright of Georgia had also sent to England a copy of the *South Carolina Gazette* of June 13, 1775 containing "Mecklenburg Resolves." What more could be desired as supportive proof that the people of Mecklenburg County were more than a year ahead of the nation in declaring their independence?

But there were people who still were troubled by the coincidence of wording with Jefferson's Declaration and thought that another paper had been issued which was

being transmuted. Support soon came for this view. In 1838 Peter Force made a new discovery. In the July 12, 1775 issue of the *Massachusetts Spy* there was an article concerning a meeting in Charlotte on May 31, not May 20, and included four resolutions which were not in the previously published documents. Again there was a renewed interest in the subject.

In 1847 Doctor Joseph Johnson found in the Charleston library a copy of the *South-Carolina Gazette and County Journal*, dated June 13, 1775. Another copy of this paper was found in the State Paper Office in London as part of a dispatch to the Earl of Dartmouth from Governor Wright of Georgia. Identical resolutions had also been found in the *North-Carolina Gazette* published at New Bern on June 16, 1775. In each case the date given for the Mecklenburg action was May 31, 1775.

Here was, indeed, a fine variety of support for the North Carolina patriots. But it was a troublesome kind of help. It gave the date as eleven days later than the earlier known document; it contained twenty instead of five resolutions; and, far worse, it did not declare independence of England. It was a fine document and probably in advance of the rest of the country at the time. It recognized in a preamble that King George had declared in February that the American Colonies were in revolt. It then set about to provide for the administration of local government in Mecklenburg County "until Laws shall be provided for us by the Congress."³

In each case the newspaper account included the name of Ephraim Brevard as clerk of the committee, confirming the memory of some of the survivors interviewed in 1830.

None of the eye-witnesses was now alive to examine this document, generally referred to as the "May Thirty-First Resolves." It was not possible to discover if they would remember this as the action taken by them.

The May Thirty-First Resolves did not meet the needs of those who contended that there had been a declaration of independence. They could not deny so well supported an

action, but they contended that it was subsequent to the declaration of May 20. What was needed was a document of contemporary date showing the five resolves of May 20. There was a possibility. Governor Martin had mentioned the account printed in the *Cape Fear Mercury*. Would this contain the May 20 paper?

No copy of this newspaper could be found in the United States. President James Polk instructed his ambassador to England, George Bancroft, to make a search in the British records. Polk had several reasons for his interest. In a letter of June 17, 1848 he said he wanted the information because he was a native of Mecklenburg County. On January 22, 1849 he thanked Bancroft for the papers he had sent, which included a copy of the May Thirty-First Resolves. But he expressed disappointment that there was no copy of a declaration of independence. He then gave what was perhaps his real reason for interest:⁴

To me the subject is peculiarly interesting, for though the vile slander which was heaped upon the memory of my Grandfather, in the Presidential canvass of 1844, has been sufficiently refuted by other testimony, yet any thing which establishes the authenticity of the Mecklenburg proceedings, will tend still more clearly to put to shame the revilers of his memory.

We can safely assume that Bancroft made a diligent search. He uncovered the South Carolina newspaper referred to earlier. But the *Cape Fear Mercury* had disappeared. A notation in the records office indicated it had been removed in 1837 on the request of former minister Andrew Stevenson. It has never been found, nor has any other copy. Some claimed that Stevenson had destroyed it to protect Jefferson's reputation from proof of plagiarism. The elusive *Cape Fear Mercury* has eluded the researchers ever since.

One more interesting development took place in 1853 when it was discovered that the Davie copy had attached to it a certificate from John McKnitt Alexander that this record was made from memory after the burning of the original. It will be recalled that the Davie copy was a fragment not containing the part saying independence was

declared. Why had no one supplied the information during thirty-four years that the *Raleigh Register* document was not an original which had survived since 1775? This too became a part of the mystery.

Not much new on the Mecklenburg controversy was to turn up during the remainder of the century, although North Carolina did hold a centennial celebration on May 20, 1875.

Shortly after the beginning of the new century the friends of each document found a new champion. The May 20 Declaration was defended by Doctor George W. Graham in a book called *The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, May 20, 1775, and the Lives of the Signers*. Its publication date was 1905. Advocacy of the May Thirty-First Resolves was handled by William H. Hoyt in his *The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence* which appeared in 1907. These are the most extensive presentations ever attempted on these documents.

Graham contended that the May Thirty-First Resolves were merely some preliminary ideas drawn up to guide the thinking of the delegates. But they were too mild to suit the mood of the committee after they heard of the Battle of Lexington. A new statement was then drafted and adopted as the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. The May Thirty-First Resolves had been printed to distribute to the delegates, and some copies had reached the newspapers on May 31. Thus he accounted for the publicity for the "wrong" document.

Doctor Graham realized that the greatest weakness of his side was the lack of documentary evidence in support of so bold an action. He set out to find such evidence, and his search was rewarded with five bits of evidence dating from before 1819, each of which appeared to sustain the claim of a declaration of independence. First, he found a poem called "The Mecklenburg Censor," claimed to have been written in 1777. It had three lines referring to that district as having been first to declare independence. Second, he discovered several references on

deeds recorded in the courthouse at Charlotte to the "fourth year of independence" or the "fifth year of independence." In several cases these would have made 1775 as the date for independence. Third, a newspaper account of a July 4, 1808 celebration in Charlotte was found to contain a quotation from a speaker who had mentioned Mecklenburg's declaration as having come before the national one. Fourth, another newspaper had carried a news item on the annual commencement program for Sugar Creek Academy in 1809. The valedictory address lauded "a full and determined declaration of independence" in Mecklenburg County "on the 19th of May, 1776." [Sic] Fifth, the archives of the Moravian Church at Bethania, North Carolina, contained a year-by-year record of events. Internal evidence indicated this account was written in 1783. For the year 1775 it says in part "... the County of Mecklenburg in North Carolina did declare itself free and independent from England. . . ."

Graham also returned to the missing *Cape Fear Mercury* and evaluated the report of Governor Martin to try to show that it would have had to be the May 20 "Declaration" and not the May Thirty-First Resolves to which the governor had reference in his letter to Lord Dartmouth. He declared that the Governor's designation, "... the most treasonable publication of a committee in the County of Mecklenburg explicitly renouncing obedience to His Majesty's Government . . ." could not have reference to anything less than a declaration of independence.

Hoyt tells of the evolution of his book in this statement in the preface, "I came to my subject before Dr. George W. Graham's book was announced with the intention of writing a defence of the authenticity of the Mecklenburg Declaration, but the irresistible logic of facts drove me to my present position."⁵ He takes up the arguments presented by Graham and answers them in detail.

He points out that Governor Martin sent duplicate dispatches to Lord Dartmouth on the Mecklenburg action. In one he noted that he had enclosed the *Cape Fear Mercury*. In

the other was a long-hand copy of the May Thirty-First Resolves. Hoyt thought it logical that the same resolutions were enclosed in both dispatches—the one in writing and the other in the newspaper.

Dates on deeds are shown to be wrong in Charlotte and in other places. Hoyt quotes lawyers as saying that such dates do not represent valid proof. He shows that the Moravian record was vague as to date and in substance could refer as well to the May Thirty-First Resolves.

The poem of the Mecklenburg Censor is admitted to be authentic and the date 1777 correct. But Hoyt points out that A. S. Salley, Jr., secretary of the Historical Commission of South Carolina, had found a copy of the poem which did not contain the three lines mentioning independence. From this and other evidence he concluded that these three lines were added fraudulently at a later date.

The patriotic speakers are traced to a relationship with John McKnitt Alexander. The Sugar Creek Academy principal was a son-in-law, and the orator is believed to have been a grandson of the man who had prepared the rough notes from which the May 20 paper was prepared for publication.

Hoyt arrives at the conclusion that most of the evidence for a declaration of independence is based upon faulty memory after fifty-five years had elapsed, and that most of the testimony could have referred to the May Thirty-First Resolves.

Harsher verdicts have been made of some parts of the controversy. Two clear cases of fraud have been shown. In 1825 a souvenir copy of the "Declaration of Independence" was printed with signatures of 26 men appended. The compiler was forced to admit that he had no basis for this claim. But ever since it has been asserted that these men were signers.⁶ In 1905 there appeared a forged copy of the *Cape Fear Mercury* containing the May 20 paper. It was proved spurious by both friends and opponents of the "declaration."⁷

A more serious possibility of fraud has been the charge that the whole document

upon which the claim of a declaration is based was a forgery by Doctor Joseph M. Alexander. This indictment was made as early as 1853 by Professor Charles Phillips of the University of North Carolina. A. S. Salley, Jr., says, "... a charge of forgery against Dr. Alexander could not be directly proven, but we submit that the circumstantial evidence against him is very strong; strong enough to convict any man of fewer champions."⁸

Whatever the evidence may be, North Carolina has made the "Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence" and the date, May 20, 1775, an important part of her state pride. The day was designated a state holiday, and the date appears on the Great Seal. At one time it was even made *compulsory* for the public schools of the state to teach that Mecklenburg County had adopted a declaration of independence on May 20, 1775.⁹

The Congress of the United States lent some support when on March 4, 1925 it passed an act establishing a commission for "the appropriate participation of the United States in the celebration and observance at the city of Charlotte, county of Mecklenburg, North Carolina, on the 18-22 days of May, 1925, of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the patriotic action of Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, in May, 1775, in declaring their independence of the English crown."¹⁰

Marjorie Barstow in *American Saga* says, "The mountain borders . . . leaped to full, free, and unconditional independence."

But outside of North Carolina few historians of the Revolution are willing to concede such an honor. *The Harvard Guide* lists the Mecklenburg Declaration under the heading of "spurious declarations." Allan Nevins uses the same term and adds, "The Declaration of Independence [of Mecklenburg County] . . . has been clearly demonstrated

an untruth."¹¹ Claude H. Van Tyne wrote, "Scholars reject it as mythical. Had such a 'Declaration' been made, it would have been inept, premature, and with no effect on the country as a whole."¹² Henry Steele Commager explains, "In 1819 an account . . . was published, embellished with phrases from the Declaration of Independence; this spurious account gave rise to the persistent myth of the Mecklenburg 'Declaration of Independence.'"¹³

Perhaps the final verdict now pronounced on the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence is silence. A look at the index in each of four of the most recent texts on United States history shows the name is not listed in one of these books. North Carolina celebrates a lonely holiday.

¹ John Lewis Kilpinger, "Four Public Declarations of the Revolutionary Period," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVIII, 4 (April, 1937) p. 160.

² William Henry Hoyt, *The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence*, New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1907, p. 4.

³ *Documents Illustrative of the Formation of the Union of the American States*, Washington, Government Printing Office, 1927, p. 6.

⁴ "Bancroft Papers on the Mecklenburg Declaration, 1775," *Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society*, XLIII, (November, 1909) p. 103.

⁵ Hoyt, *Op. Cit.*, p. VI.

⁶ A. S. Salley, Jr., "The Mecklenburg Declaration: The Present Status of the Question," *American Historical Review*, XIII, 1 (October, 1907) p. 30.

⁷ H. Addington Bruce, "New Light on the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence," *North American Review*, CLXXXIII, (July, 1906) p. 53.

⁸ Salley, *Op. Cit.* p. 42.

⁹ Allan Nevins, *The Gateway to History*, Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1938, p. 119.

¹⁰ Henry Campbell Black (Editor), "The Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence," *The Constitutional Review*, IX, 3 (July, 1925) p. 186.

¹¹ Nevins, *Op. Cit.*, p. 119.

¹² Claude H. Van Tyne, *The War of Independence*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1929, p. 191.

¹³ Henry Steele Commager, *Documents of American History*, New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1958, p. 98.

Trends in Eighth Grade American History Textbooks

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Is the "five year period" vexatious to you? Or are you in a more fortunate position where the board of education is less restrictive in the matter of textbook selection and change? At any rate, you may be wondering what kind of an 8th grade American history textbook you may pick or have picked for you.

This brings up the question of what is happening in the field of eighth grade American history textbooks. What are the trends? What's new? What's old? What's good and what's bad? How different are these American history textbooks from those used in the fifth grade and in high school? What are the authors emphasizing as to periods, biographies, and dates? How sensitive are the books to young adolescent interests? How do the books reflect the changes in the twentieth century?

Recently, the authors made a study of a dozen eighth grade American history textbooks which have been published within the last five years. These textbooks are:

- Casner, Mabel B. and Gabriel, Ralph H. *The Story of American Democracy*. Harcourt, Brace and Company. New York. 1955.
- Cordier, R. W., and Robert, E. B. *History of Our United States*. Rand McNally and Company. New York. 1953.
- Hartman, Gertrude. *America, Land of Freedom*. D. C. Heath and Company. Boston. 1957.
- Mackey, Margaret G., with Tiegs, Ernest W. and Adams, Fay. *Your Country's Story*. Ginn and Company. Boston. 1953.
- McGuire, Edna and Portwood, Thomas B. *The Rise of Our Free Nation*. The Mac-

millan Company. New York. 1957.

- Moon, Glenn W. and MacGowan, John H. *Story of Our Land and People*. Henry Holt and Company. New York. 1957.
- Moore, Clyde B., Carpenter, Helen McCracken, Paquin, Laurence G., Painter, Fred B., and Lewis, Gertrude M. *Building a Free Nation*. Charles Scribner's Sons. New York. 1955.
- Quillen, I. James, and Krug, Edward. *Living in Our America*. Scott, Foresman and Company. Chicago. 1956.
- Wainger, Bertrand M. *The American Adventure*. McGraw-Hill Book Company. New York. 1955.
- West, Ruth. *Story of Our Country*. Allyn and Bacon. Boston. 1954.
- Wilder, Howard B., Ludlum, Robert P. and Brown, Harriet McCune. *This Is America's Story*. Boston. 1956.
- Wilson, Howard E. and Lamb, Wallace E. *American History*. American Book Company. New York. 1955.

For convenience, the textbooks will be identified by the author's name. In cases where the textbook has several authors, we shall refer to that book by the name of the first author.

Overtly, the textbooks have a dazzling effect. The outside covers catch the eye by attractive colors and give a sense of the panoramic past. But what's inside the books? We know that you want to go behind the window dressing. Let's look at a book together.

Who are the authors? Most of the books are being written by several authors. Single authorship is becoming an exception. Ap-

parently, publishers prefer to have both a college historian and a junior high school teacher who is currently teaching in the classroom. For example, there is the team of Casner and Gabriel. Mabel Casner has spent most of her teaching years in the seventh and eighth grades of the public schools of West Haven, Connecticut. Professor Ralph Gabriel holds the chair of Sterling Professor of History at Yale University and his scholarship rates high in the field of intellectual history. Even where single authors are given, (if the books are carefully examined), usually a consultant is named. The Wainger textbook lists Buena Stolberg as consultant. Dr. Wainger is the research professor of American civilization at Union College. Buena Stolberg teaches Social Studies - English core curriculum in the junior high school at Webster Groves, Missouri. In the writing of eighth grade history textbooks there is a pooling of the resources and talents of the academicians and the practitioners. The junior high school teacher strives to give attention to the interests of the adolescent, with whom she is in close contact. She also understands the techniques of teaching, which have not been the particular interest of the college professor of history. Yet, the college professor has the responsibility to see to it that the content of the junior high school textbook reflects the most recent sound research.

What does the table of contents reveal? Usually, the textbooks have ten units, consisting of about thirty chapters. Interestingly enough, there is a trend to give more lineage to the period prior to the Civil War. Our analysis shows that generally six of the ten units cover the pre-Reconstruction Period. To put it another way, at least sixty per cent of the textbooks stress the pre-1865 period. In the face of the many accusations that students are subject to excessive contemporaneity and learn nothing about the past, certainly the eighth grade textbooks now in circulation do not support such indictment. If anything, the books are reducing the emphasis on the twentieth century. These books show conclusively that the students

have ample opportunity to learn about America's heritage. As a matter of fact, there are some books that devote an impressive amount of space in explanation of European civilization prior to Columbus's discovery of the new world. Good examples are Moon, Casner, Hartman and Wilder.

The units on the pre-Reconstruction Period are pretty well standardized. Titles vary, but the authors generally tell their story chronologically. The themes are discovery and exploration, settlement and development of the colonies, the American Revolution, the Constitution, the westward movement, and the coming of the Civil War.

The differences arise in the organization of the textbooks dealing with the past three-quarters of a century. It is interesting to note the different patterns that authors use for the period since the Civil War. Most of the textbooks are distinctly topical. Hartman, for instance, describes the frontier, industries, transportation, and communication after the Civil War. Some books, however, continue the story chronologically. Wainger and Casner follow chronological organization more strictly. In Casner's textbook, unit eight, "The Nation Takes a Leading Role in World Affairs," specifies the period 1865-1920; unit nine, "Americans Defend Democracy in a Troubled World," has 1920-1945 as dates; and, finally, unit ten, "American Democracy Meets the Communist Threat," has the dates 1945-NOW. In some textbooks, new dates are suggested as milestones. The Moon book has units with dates like 1789-1823, 1906-1869, 1820-1877, and 1834 to the present. We feel that some of these dates, like 1806 and 1834, are not justifiable guideposts.

Apparently the textbook writers themselves have not settled on a particular type of organization of material since the Civil War. No doubt there are various reasons for this. There is the difficulty of interpreting American civilization in the post - Civil War period. No agreement exists among historians as to the most effective pattern of handling the past seventy-five years — topical, chronological, or topical-chronological.

There is also no agreement on the selection of topics and there are striking differences in the way authors interpret the history of this period. How essential is it to have a common pattern? Is it reasonable to suggest that for pupils in the eighth grade the topical pattern might be more effective because of the limited time sense which pupils in that grade have? Should the Senior High School American history textbooks stress the chronological form of organization?

The post-Civil War period is given a variety of approaches. In most textbooks there is good lineage to political and economic history. Less attention is given to social history. Again, there are some exceptions to this generalization. In Wilder there is a full chapter recounting the story of immigration. Hartman treats well the "New Ways of Living," and "Democracy Advances," although the titles do not clearly spell out the period under discussion. Unique among the books in interpretation of social life is Moore. Chapter 19, "More Leisure Improves American Living," discusses sports, music, drama, movies, TV, and habits of vacationing. Might American history textbooks on the Senior High School level stress political and economic history more while eighth grade books dwell more on social topics? Would this be more in accordance with the interests and needs of eighth grade boys and girls? Are they ready for the dose of politics and political history that is given in the eighth grade?

There is less doubt in our minds about the lineage that should be given to biographical aspects of history. All the junior high school textbooks might well increase their attention to the lives of great leaders. At the eighth grade level, there is an understandable hero-worshipping stage. At this age boys and girls have a keen sense of imagination and a desire for adventure. Might they not get a better understanding of the evolution of American civilization through a more vicarious appreciation of the deeds performed by great leaders who sacrificed themselves to advance American ideals? Hartman uses three pages to describe the close of the Civil

War by cleverly employing a socio-dramatic situation which features Grant and Lee. Moon has the device of giving a full page to a prominent American, including a short biographical sketch along with an illustration. The biographical approach makes the past come alive for young people. It gives them opportunity to experience the struggles and aspirations of heroic individuals who have made our country what it is today. History then becomes an inspiring story rather than a mechanical review of the dim past.

A heartening number of the textbooks show real inventiveness in their learning aids. They have broken away from the pedestrian format of listing books to read, words to learn, questions to answer, and things to do. They have developed eye-catching and interesting turns in phrasing. Examples are "gallery of presidents," "then and now," "stories there was no room to tell," and "time lines." Instead of a trite identification of famous Americans, one text asks, "Who's Who in History?" Another text uses an unusual approach called, "Linking the Past with the Present." In this, the authors bring up to date an historical point, for example, the cotton production of today and that of a century ago. An apparently new trend is the gallery of presidents with written sketches and attractive illustrations. Still another interesting learning aid is "Your Community Grows with the Nation," wherein the author relates the national to the local history at a given time. Then there is the time line in chart form which links political, social, and economic events. Unique is the approach titled, "How Do You Feel About It?" For instance, the authors state the Declaration of Independence advocates the equality of all men. Then, these questions are raised: "What does this mean to you?" "Would you have signed the Declaration if you were there?" Noteworthy is the effort to encourage pupils to integrate their studies by creative writing, the use of audio-visual aids, dramatics, art, and map activities. Finally, there is greater discrimination and skill being shown in bibliographical suggestions.

No longer is there just a lumping of books. In one text, the authors offer "Books about Interesting People," and "Stories of Adventure and Everyday Life," in addition to listing general books.

In summary, we have many good feelings about today's eighth grade textbooks in American history. There has been marked progress in the physical attractiveness of these books. From cover to cover, they lure the readers with their window dressing appeals—their color, illustrations, and typography. In addition, the books have received careful editing in terms of historical accuracy. Commendable is the effort made to use the findings of educational and adolescent psychology as they apply to the interests and capabilities of boys and girls of junior high school age. Recognition of this is seen espe-

cially in the learning aids where the changes have been impressive. The unit plan of organization has been followed. Generally, the chronological approach prevails from Columbus to the Civil War. Thereafter, the textbooks vary in the manner in which they write recent history.

Worthy of additional study, however, is the whole field of curriculum articulation, that is, the need to differentiate what is being taught and written on American history in the fifth grade, the eighth grade, and the Senior High School. We get a feeling of redundancy and a need to distinguish more sharply the content for pupils at different grades. The problem of grade placement of content in American history remains a challenge to publishers, textbook writers, professional educators, and teachers.

A Guide for Writing a Fourth Grade Social Studies Textbook

BY JOSEPH JUNELL

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Many teachers with an ambition to write are entering the field of textbook writing at least on a spare time basis, and it goes without saying that teaching experience will stand them in good stead. Further, we may assume that they already possess some facility in writing or they would not find themselves in the position of having to write a textbook. The actual job of writing the book, however, presents problems which the newcomer to the field cannot always foresee.

It is for these courageous people, about to take their first plunge, that the following words of advice are intended. They are based on a year of hard work that went into the writing of a social studies textbook for Seattle's fourth grade children. Mimeo-

graphed copies of the rough draft were tried experimentally in ten Seattle classrooms where they received a rigid appraisal by both the children and a committee of teachers selected for their critical ability. More important, perhaps, is that the book was written under the close supervision of Dr. Emelyn Jones, an experienced writer of children's text-books. Thus the conclusions are a composite of criticisms drawn from fourteen or fifteen people with whom text-books have been in one way or another a major concern for a number of years.

SYNTAX

Probably the first hurdle an author who has never written at a child's level must pass is the problem of sentence construction. It's

easy, you say; just keep your sentences short and simple. Well I, too, was armed with this good advice when I set to work on chapter one of the first draft. Very soon, however, the question arose: how short? and how simple? For it was not long before I discovered phrases and clauses creeping into the work which didn't belong there.

The problem was partly solved for me one day when Dr. Jones suggested a yardstick he used in writing at the fourth grade level—that of limiting his longest sentences to about 17 words. This may sound like an arbitrary rule infringing on poetic license, but it has its advantages. You will be surprised at how often it helps you maintain simplicity by making you discard redundant words, qualifying phrases, and the like. Most grade four text-books average about eight or ten words to the sentence, and generally speaking if a subordinate idea can't be adequately expressed in seventeen or eighteen words, it may better be left unsaid. Chances are you are attempting a higher degree of complexity than the average fourth grader can handle anyway.

VOCABULARY

I wish I had familiarized myself from the very beginning with a controlled word list suited to fourth grade youngsters. Several years of teaching experience at this level had convinced me I had a feel for the vocabulary of the average nine-year-old which would not lead me astray. To some extent this was true, but it was not enough to keep me out of trouble. The margins of the rough draft were generously sprinkled with such remarks as these: "Delete this word," "Too difficult," "This is sixth grade level." In some cases a more simple word was easily substituted for the difficult one. Frequently, however, I found myself having to reconstruct entire sentences or paragraphs in order to retain their meaning.

Familiarity with a word list is all the more helpful when we consider that a controlled vocabulary has two practical functions. One is to start the reader out with words already familiar to him, and the other is to introduce gradually new words of increasing difficulty

as the work proceeds. This is especially true of primary and intermediate story books. So important is the process, in fact, that writing assignments are often accompanied by carefully prescribed word lists which publishing houses compile for the help of their authors.

If you teach in a large system, it is likely that such word lists are available at your central office. Otherwise they may be found in public libraries under the subject heading of vocabulary studies.

PARAGRAPHS

Another snag over which I frequently stumbled was the construction of paragraphs. Keeping them short was easy, but soon the manuscripts were trickling back with paragraphs heavily underscored or circled as being "hazy," "cloudy," or not making sense. This was especially upsetting since I was convinced my meanings were crystal clear. I may have had reservations about style, but never about clarity.

My severest critic gave me a clue to what I was doing wrong. "Which sentence carries your main idea?" her remarks kept insisting. At first I wondered whether language people were still harping on that worn out piece of advice. The truth is they are and will likely continue to so long as we express ourselves with written words. When I got over my initial pique, I was surprised at how often the fuzziness vanished by sharpening the topic sentence, and by placing it as often as I could at the beginning of each paragraph.

The rule is that if burying the main idea somewhere within the paragraph is a venial sin in adult composition, at this level of writing it is mortal. Teachers who feel that the fourth grade is a good point at which to introduce the tricky business of outlining will be very conscious of your lead sentence, so whenever possible try to make it carry the central thought.

THE PROBLEM OF COMPLEXITY

Very soon in your writing you will begin introducing concepts which are new to many fourth grade children, and the question arises how high up on the scale of complexity can you go and still feel that what you have said is within reach of the nine-year-old

mind. I know of no way to establish a safe rule except by close observation of children's limitations, and by carefully examining some of the standard textbooks. Even then you will occasionally run afoul of some wary critic ready to pounce on your errors of judgment.

One example stands out clearly in my mind. I was attempting to explain the purpose of a sub-station which received electric current from our Skagit River hydro-electric plant. My original paragraph read like this:

A sub-station is like a warehouse with dozens of large storage tanks for storing electricity. The proper name for one of these storage tanks is a transformer. The electricity coming over high power lines is too strong for home or factory use. A transformer divides it into smaller amounts. Then it can be sent out to different districts of our city.

Knowing that children of this age have often seen a transformer and heard the name, I felt justified in trying to explain the use of it. My editor wasn't of the same opinion.

"Children take things literally," she remarked. "A sub-station is not a warehouse, nor is a transformer a storage tank. Better try something else."

I was left with two alternatives: one, to explain the nature of a step-up or step-down transformer, which of course was out of the question; the other, to throw it out completely. I chose the latter and ended up by simply saying that a sub-station divided electricity into small amounts for home and factory use.

The point here is that in trying to simplify a difficult concept, I had managed merely to create a false impression of it, which is worse than avoiding the subject in the first place. I still feel uneasy about this paragraph, imagining the arched eyebrow of an engineer who might chance to glance at it.

The fourth grade is often the child's first acquaintance with map reading, which includes the concepts of compass directions, scale, and map symbols. Here, again, a good deal of caution must be exercised in presenting these new ideas to him as simply as you can and, if possible, in proper sequence.

For example, I used the device of acquainting children with the map of our city by taking them on imaginary trips to points of interest. In the beginning, however, I was careful that the streets we traveled lay in the direction of north and south or east and west. Later, when I figured the children had gained some knowledge of these cardinal points, I began to include the directions northeast, northwest, southeast, and southwest.

Expressing geographic distance may cause you some difficulty. To the average fourth grader a distance of one hundred miles or a thousand is virtually the same. Both to him are incredibly far. It is partly for this reason that some authorities recommend a program of study which is at first community-centered, then gradually branching out to include his city and state.

Similarly, you will need to take special care with historical data. Remember that the few years beyond the span of this reader's memory may seem to him as far back as a century. One more year of maturation will make a surprising difference, for we find the fifth grade pupil quite at home with the voyages of Columbus or the landing of the Pilgrims.

What does this mean to the writer? Simply that anything but a fairly straightforward, chronological treatment of events is confusing, and that all but a few historical dates are for the most part meaningless. Instead, we substitute phrases like "Many years ago," "Long, long ago," or "During the time of the Indians."

One final piece of advice: stay as close to the world he is familiar with as you can or you will lose him. He is not yet ready for distant flights into the past or philosophical interpretations of the present. Open new doors for him, yes, but be sure to gauge his interests and abilities before doing so. If you tell him an interesting story about his community, his city and state, you may well kindle a desire for a deeper understanding of the complicated world into which he was born. What more than this can you ask for?

Anglo-French Relations Under Charles II, 1660-1685

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The foreign policy of Charles II was, to a large extent, a continuation of that of the Protector, Cromwell, but with the emphasis being based upon material rather than religious concepts. Foreign affairs was one of the fields in which the influence of Charles was felt frequently. Upon the Restoration, England held a French alliance while at war technically with Spain, but Charles desired to continue his own friendly relations with the Spanish, to whom he had turned for friendship in his exile when Cromwell had entered into an alliance with the French. Nevertheless, it was the offer of an alliance with Portugal, with concomitantly attractive terms, which served to establish for him a basis for common interests with Louis XIV. He realized the insufficiency of parliamentary grants, which had served to place him in need of funds, and he desired, moreover, to advance England's sway imperially. Louis, wishing to maintain Spain on her downward course until ready to claim both the Spanish Netherlands and Spain through his Spanish marriage, encouraged Charles to accept the Portuguese alliance in 1661.

During the reign of Charles II, France, under Louis XIV, occupied the most prominent position in Europe, affecting to a great extent the politics of all of Western Christendom. Up to 1688, lands of enormous value were added to France, concomitant with Louis's policy of territorial aggression. The political weaknesses of the other European nations were used to good advantage to strengthen the Versailles monarchy in an effort to preclude the possibility of hostile alliances. Charles could make no real, effec-

tive resistance to French aims; Spain was well on her way to political and military impotence; and the Empire was rent by her endemic jealousies. The two foreign countries, therefore, with whom Charles would have the most to deal were Holland and France.

The Spanish Netherlands formed the pivot of Anglo-French relations in the 1660's, with Louis continuing in his efforts to acquire the whole of the Low Countries. The friendly relations with France, meanwhile, which had been engendered by Charles's Portuguese alliance, brought about the sale of Dunkirk to Louis for a large sum in 1662. Although this transaction was unpopularly received in England, Charles had now found a source for cash not previously accessible in Parliament. Herein lies the foreign policy of Charles II, financial vassalage to Louis XIV. Dunkirk had been a costly possession anyway, having lost most of its military value. Charles wished to conduct his own policy, based upon a strong dislike for parliamentary control and the belief in his ability to establish a strong monarchy, a monarchy supported by an alliance between Catholics and dissenters. His personal inclination towards Catholicism had been increased by the attitude of his brother, James, Duke of York. He thus had hopes of achieving his goal by the assistance of Louis, who, engaged in advancing his queen's pretensions to the Spanish succession, was quite willing and anxious to purchase the alliance, or at least the neutrality, of England. England could not help holding a low position in foreign affairs through her subservience to France,

compared to the position she had held under Elizabeth.

Louis was helped from 1661 to 1670 in his aggressive policy to extend France's boundaries and to strengthen further the French position on the Continent by the war between England and Holland, as well as by the impotence of the Empire and the Spanish decline. In April, 1662, friendly negotiations had been entered into by Louis with the foremost Dutch statesman, John de Witt, resulting in a treaty which guaranteed to the Dutch all their European possessions. When war broke out later between England and Holland, Louis was, therefore, bound by his Dutch treaty to aid the latter. After unsuccessfully attempting to mediate between the combatants, he decided to adhere to his treaty obligations to the Dutch. Only some slight assistance was given to Holland directly, but Louis menacingly kept away every English ally. When Sweden was dissuaded from an English alliance, Charles was left practically alone.

The year 1667, however, was marked by two notable events. A secret treaty was made on March 31 with Louis by Charles, in which the latter agreed to remain neutral in a French invasion of the Spanish Netherlands in return for Louis's restoration of his West Indian conquests. Charles was blocked in his calculations, however, when the Dutch attacked the English ships in the Thames in June, compelling him to submit to the ignominious Treaty of Breda on July 31, 1667. The War of Devolution had already begun on May 24, when French forces had crossed over into the Spanish Netherlands. Louis had carefully prepared for this war, for by his secret treaty with Charles on March 31, 1667, the latter had promised to refrain from concluding an alliance with the Emperor against France for that year.

The conclusion of the second Anglo-Dutch war was followed by a shift in alliances. The Dutch saw in Louis's aggressiveness a definite threat to their independence and began to seek an alliance with Charles, for England stood to lose also if Louis were to start trouble unchecked in the Spanish Nether-

lands. Moreover, Charles raised his price to Louis for non-intervention in the latter's actions. When his demands were not completely met, the Triple Alliance was born. Louis's successes in the Spanish Low Countries were so extraordinary that some coalition of nations against him was felt necessary, especially by the Dutch, for the French had also conquered Franche Comte in February, 1668. Thus, the Triple Alliance was formed between England, the United Provinces, and Sweden. On January 23, 1668, a pact was concluded between Charles and the United Provinces, to which was added Sweden in April. Now Louis was faced with a formidable combination, the importance of which lay in the fact that it marked the "first formal expression of European resistance to the aggressions of Louis." The latter could rely no longer on Spain's aloofness from taking positive action in the Low Countries, and along with other considerations, he reluctantly came to terms with England, Holland, and Sweden, by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle of May 2, 1668.

This alliance appeared for a time as a menace to Louis's projects, but in 1669 Charles notified the French ambassador of his desire to return to the Roman Church, making it also quite evident to Louis that he could be had for a price. Europe was still far from unity, for England and Holland continued to regard each other with suspicion and even hostility. Louis, bent on gaining his ends in the Spanish Netherlands, decided on a direct attack in that area and its subsequent reduction. This would, of course, necessitate the complete overthrow of the Triple Alliance, which was not a difficult task since the combination was undermined in a short while by the uneasy peace prevailing in Europe and also by the absence of any real understanding on the part of the individual member nations. Charles, through the Duchess of Orleans, negotiated with Louis, the result being the secret Treaty of Dover, signed on May 22, 1670. Louis promised a yearly pension to Charles and also French troops when Charles considered the time appropriate for a return to Catholicism.

As for Charles, he was to aid Louis in any future aggression in the Netherlands. It cannot be known for certain whether or not Charles actually believed a return to Rome possible, but he did want the cash which Louis offered, perhaps using the bait of Catholic restoration in England as an inducement. At any rate, this stipulation about Catholicism was concealed from all the non-Catholic members of the Cabal. In December, 1670, a feigned treaty was signed by the whole Cabal, omitting any reference to the Catholic issue. The idea of any return to Rome was soon dispelled, however, when, in 1672, Parliament objected to Charles's Declaration of Indulgence of the same year and offered him a large sum to discard it, which he did to the surprise of no one.

Although Charles deleted the Catholic issue from his policy, convinced of Parliament's hostility towards Catholicism as witnessed by its Test Act, he was still able to maintain the also unpopular French side. The suspicions of the average Englishman were aroused by Charles's open friendship for France without even his knowledge of the still secret Treaty of Dover. Also unpopular was the third war against the Netherlands, begun in 1672. After 1673, no more grants for the pursuance of the war were forthcoming from Parliament through fear of French dominance on the Continent and the consequent expansion of Catholicism. Soon afterward, in 1674, Charles was forced to make peace with the Dutch, while the Cabal was broken up. Meanwhile, the Catholic stipulation in the Treaty of Dover had been discovered by Shaftesbury, who then became the focus of opposition to Charles's policies. By this time, moreover, manifestations of an organized opposition had become apparent, professing to defend Protestantism and the English liberties, both meaning one and the same thing to Englishmen since the days of Mary Tudor more than a century before. This opposition was the germ of the Whig Party, still in embryo form, but soon to flourish. Charles chose for his chief advisor one Sir Thomas Osborne, whom he delegated as treasurer and created Earl of

Danby. The latter jealously defended the royal prerogative as well as Catholicism, while Englishmen began to fear Catholic encroachment all the more, especially when Charles's avowedly Catholic brother, James, the heir to the throne and current Duke of York, married a Catholic princess, Mary of Modena, as his second wife. The paragon of anti-Protestantism, of course, was the Englishman's implacable enemy and the strongest Continental ruler, Louis XIV. With the discovery of the alleged Popish Plot to kill Charles and restore Catholicism, the fears of the average Englishman were raised almost to the point of frenzy, for even if the plot were an invention of one Titus Oates, its plausibility could be explained by the intrigues of those Catholics known for their rashness. The opposition, naturally, was led by Shaftesbury. His group, whether convinced of the truth of the plot or not, took advantage of the situation and did its utmost to fan the fires of a Protestantism made equally fanatical.

Both Charles and Louis now realized the impossibility of drawing England again into an active conflict with Holland. The most that could be hoped for was the maintenance of English neutrality. Although Charles had been forced to cease hostilities with the Dutch in 1674, he had continued to receive his French pension through Louis's fear of Parliament's hostility to France, and in 1677, he was even able to extort more money from Louis when Parliament wanted to help Holland against France. The whole story of Anglo-French relations in the 1670's revolves about the uncanny ability of Charles at playing off Parliament against France. Generally, Charles remained faithful to his employer and postponed the summoning of a parliament as long as possible, proroguing it when it threatened to pressure him to join Holland actively against France. This, in essence, remained the state of English foreign affairs during the last decade of Charles's reign. Charles, in the employ of Louis, was to keep England from combining with Holland, which would have been her natural course otherwise, and to keep her

closely allied with France, then her natural rival. Nevertheless, Charles vacillated in his loyalty, for, at the advice of Parliament, he began negotiations with the Dutch, resulting in the marriage of his niece, Mary, to William of Orange, the future William III of England. Charles was still able to play both sides with agility to the extent that even after Parliament had appropriated funds for a war against France and Louis had dropped the payments after the Dutch marriage, he succeeded in getting Louis to renew the pension while promising to prevent a war with France. At this time, however, England was drifting in the general direction of direct assistance to the Dutch when the war between the latter and the French was concluded in 1678 by a treaty.

The wars of Charles were past now, having come to an end with the treaty of 1674. It was not that the average Englishman was unwilling to fight, for he was heart and soul against Louis and his shadow, Catholicism; nor was the Commons reluctant, for it had cheerfully voted large grants for military purposes during the war, requesting only that the funds be used for their legitimate purposes. It was the untrustworthiness of Charles which vitiated the efficient administration of the money.

The close connection between internal and foreign politics continued throughout, the fate of a parliament depending upon Charles's decisions either to summon it or to dispense with it. In the summer of 1681, William of Orange personally began the difficult task of overcoming the reluctance of Charles to break with Louis, giving no little worry to the latter. Charles, however, was adamant and refused an invitation to join the general league proposed in 1681 by Charles XI of Sweden and other opponents

of Louis, a league whose objective was to guarantee the treaties of Westphalia and Nijmegen.

In 1683, despite the subsidies from Louis, Charles was compelled by a shortage of income to abandon Tangier and to allow the navy to decay. At the same time, all he could do was to observe French power on the increase, including the seizure of Strasbourg. The last years of Charles were characterized by his vacillating domestic policy no less than by his similarly dishonest foreign policy of tortuous, deceitful diplomacy. A change of policy may at long last have been considered by him when he was taken seriously ill on February 2, 1685. After embracing Catholicism formally and receiving the sacrament, he made his exit on the sixth day of that month.

To understand Anglo-French relations under Charles II, it is necessary to understand only the natures and personalities of Charles and his French counterpart, whom he envied and strove to imitate against the wishes of his people and parliament. Therein lies the whole story of a king who preferred the receiving of money gifts from another, foreign king hostile to his people, to asserting his own country's welfare.

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A New Way of Studying and Teaching War and Peace

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As there is more than one way to skin a cat, there may be more than one way to analyze the causes of war and the conditions of peace. But all my experiences in studying and teaching the subject for the past quarter of a century have convinced me beyond any doubt that the present method of handling the subject is completely wrong. Let us first take the commonly accepted method of analyzing the causes of war.

In this age of national states and complex industrial civilization, many students of international relations view war as a child of various conflicting forces such as nationalism, militarism, imperialism, and kindred factors. For instance, Herbert Hoover and Hugh Gibson list in *The Problem of Lasting Peace* seven dynamic forces which are believed to make for peace or war: Ideologies, economic pressure, nationalism, militarism, imperialism, the complex of fear, hate and revenge, and the will to peace.

Sidney B. Fay mentions in *The Origins of the World War* five underlying causes of the First World War: the system of secret alliances, militarism, nationalism, economic imperialism, and false propaganda.

Gabriel Gersh gives in April issue (1956) of THE SOCIAL STUDIES four main causes of war: economic, political, dynastic, which includes modern dictatorships, and religious, which includes present day communism.

These so-called causes of war given by these and hundreds of other scholars are only the superficial, not the fundamental, causes. To say that these are the fundamental causes of wars is very much like maintaining that mosquitoes are the causes of swamps.

What should be stated, of course, is that the swamp is the cause of the mosquitoes because it breeds them.

To illustrate the point, let us suppose that we live in the state of anarchy without government, without law, and without police protection, and all of us become the defenders of our own lives and properties, and those of our loved ones. What must we do to survive in such a state of anarchy? I suppose the first thing we will have to do is to unite with our relatives and friends, and form a small protective organization. This is a kind of nationalism in its embryonic form. The next thing we will have to do is arm our group with the best weapons of war available. This is the beginning of militarism. What we will have to do next is to make our group bigger and more powerful than our rival groups either by the formation of alliances with friendly groups or by an outright conquest. This is a kind of imperialism in its embryonic stage.

Incredible as it may seem, it is in just this way that all the warlike ideas and institutions were born and flourished from the most ancient times down to today.

Living in a world of anarchy, the savages were forced to develop for the sake of their survival all sorts of warlike ideas and institutions such as autocratic governments, belligerent gods, and the militaristic sense of honor and glory. Similarly, civilized men, living in a state of international anarchy, were forced to develop all kinds of institutions and ideas, like militarism, imperialism, nationalism and sovereignty, not materially different from those of the primitive peoples,

for neither primitives nor modern men can survive in the state of anarchy without these ideas and institutions, however outmoded they may seem.

No people can survive in anarchy without an institution like the state to protect them. Nor can a state survive in this chaotic world without nationalism and patriotism because if its people, devoid of these ideas, refuse to fight against aggression, nothing else will preserve it. Nor can a people survive in a state of international anarchy without militarism and all that goes with it, such as war and the crude, barbarous sense of honor and glory, because in the state of anarchy, only the most powerful can survive, and whatever is indispensable for the survival of the group is honorable and glorious. Therefore, the institution of war, as stated by Heinrich von Treitschke, a forefather of Nazism, is sacred and is to be regarded as an ordinance of God.

Pride, power, the will to power, the will to overpower and the will to war, according to Friedrich Nietzsche, another forefather of Nazism, are the highest virtues of a superman, and the acts of conquest and domination and the ruthless elimination of other races are the most glorious achievements of a superior race. Thus we see Nazism was only another brand of ideas produced by international anarchy.

Modern Japanese militarism and imperialism were likewise products of international anarchy. A century ago Japan was only a small isolationist country, wishing to mind her own business. But unfortunately, the veil of her isolation was lifted in a turbulent age of imperialism. It was the time when the imperialistic powers of Europe were conquering the poorly armed Asiatic countries. Confronted with the danger of being conquered and dominated by the European powers, the Japanese were obliged to build a powerful military empire. In other words, the modern Japanese empire, like all other warlike empires in history, was only a bubble in the turbulent ocean of international anarchy.

The same is true of present day Egypt. Standing at the crossroads of three conti-

nents, Egypt must rise as a powerful military state, or else she will be crushed by Russia or her enemies. So Egypt is rising under the leadership of Colonel Nasser, who plays one power against the other and draws nourishment from international rivalry, which is another by-product of international anarchy.

Unfortunately, however, most men have failed to see the woods for the trees. They have seen only the superficial causes of war such as militarism, nationalism, and imperialism, without seeing the ultimate breeder of all these and other warlike ideas and institutions. As a result, they have erroneously blamed their innocent cultures and institutions, their capitalists, their national states, their materialistic civilizations, their politicians and statesmen, their neighbors, their gods, even their own human nature for their troubles and wars. And at each generation they have found a scapegoat as a war criminal and have hanged and mutilated him, and then have gone to sleep thinking that peace will forever prevail. But anarchy has kept on breeding new war-makers without end. It is little wonder then that, despite men's relentless efforts to create peace, war has marched on century after century with only short truces.

Fortunately, there have appeared in recent years a number of scholars who have recognized the utter futility of attacking the problem of war by this method. They have, therefore, tried to examine the subject from a different angle and to reduce the confused mass of data into a single understandable formula.

Mortimer J. Adler, of the University of Chicago, stated in *How to Think about War and Peace*, published in 1944, that international anarchy, namely the absence of law in the realm of international affairs, is the sole cause of war.

Emery Reves maintained in *The Anatomy of Peace*, published in 1945, that sovereignty of the nation-states is the only cause of war. It is needless to say that his contention is identical with that of Adler.

Although this approach to the problem of war and peace may seem a new one in our

modern world, it is, in reality, a return to an old method used by Confucius and Plato in ancient China and Greece. Confucius believed that the strife of his day was due to the breakdown of the laws of propriety. Plato likewise thought that the absence of justice and law was the chief cause of strife among men.

Whether ancient or modern, this point of view which holds international anarchy as the ultimate cause of all wars is sound, not only because anarchy breeds warlike cultures and institutions, but also because whenever and wherever anarchy is banished, war goes out the window, and peace and order prevail.

Within the limits of the United States there were some 300 Indian tribes with a total population of some 300,000 when the white man began his conquest of the new world. Although some of these were peaceful, warfare among many of them was more than frequent. But all the tribal wars disappeared when the white man banished intertribal anarchy.

The same thing happened in hundreds of other places from "Greenland's icy mountains to India's coral strands". This fact alone proves beyond doubt that anarchy is the ultimate cause of all wars, past or present.

When one accepts international anarchy as the fundamental cause of war, one can easily understand how war can be banished and peace can be created—just eliminate inter-

national anarchy. The only way to banish anarchy is through the creation of a world authority strong enough to uphold the principles of justice.

But how can we create such an authority in this age of nationalism and imperialism? So we try to destroy these warlike ideas and institutions like Germany, Japan, The Soviet Union, and Communist China. But no sooner do we destroy one, than another rises to replace it, just as when we kill one mosquito, another one rises from the swamp. So the attempt to create peace by destroying these warlike ideas and institutions without banishing anarchy is very much like trying to control mosquitoes without draining the swamps. Therefore, the best way to peace is through a frontal attack on international anarchy which breeds these warlike ideas, cultures, and institutions.

There are only two ways to create a strong world organization to banish international anarchy: one is through voluntary cooperation and the other is by force. If the modern nations should fail to create such a machinery to banish anarchy through voluntary cooperation because of their fear and suspicion, hatred and jealousy, stupidity and shortsightedness, they will probably be forced to do so by war and conquest. By whatever method, mankind is destined to be united in peace, dead or alive, for the modern world will not remain forever divided as it now is.

The Teachers' Page

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A PROGRAM OF EDUCATION FOR THE ACADEMICALLY TALENTED¹

The statement which follows describes an ongoing program of education for academically talented students at the Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. We believe it will be of interest to readers of these pages.

Philosophy, Aims, Purposes

In a sense the goals for the academically talented are "plus" goals in that they call for emphasis over and above those objectives thought to be suitable for all adolescents in a democratic society. There are a few which are essentially unique in that they can realistically be attained by those possessing

the characteristics of mind-power. In any event, it is upon the quality aspects of these goals that our teachers must focus their attention. Education for all, America's aim, should also mean suitable education for the superior student. The following are some of these student goals and hence may also be viewed as guides to teachers and administrators in helping students:

1. To become intellectually curious, ever to search for why's and for meanings.
2. To improve the ability to do research with attention to basic work habits and study skills and independent study.
3. To develop the power of critical thinking, to become "open minded" with a sense of suspended judgment.
4. To realize the responsibilities as well as the power and importance, of knowledge.
5. To gain skill in self-evaluation.
6. To develop leadership ability including a personal poise, a respect for the worth of others, and skill in group dynamics and in person-to-person relationships.
7. To develop the drive, the interest and the attitude that will enable the student to desire to develop his own abilities.
8. To perfect his skills in communication.
9. To provide for self-competition, inspiration and emulation.
10. To prepare for scholarship competition.
11. To prepare successfully for entrance and achievement in the better colleges.
12. To provide a classroom atmosphere where the gifted can display his knowledge and ability without engendering resentment on the part of his peers.
13. To offer those in the program stimulus of incentives that are concrete — that carry with them some material worth.
14. To develop that breadth of vision which will see the possibilities of the future, the realism of the present, and the heritage of the past; to see in all this the continuing stream of man's ideas and questions and concerns.

Organization of program — College block and Accelerated classes

The program of studies for the academically talented students, at the Abraham Lincoln High School, is essentially the traditional academic or college preparatory course of study. Boys and girls designated as academically talented are rostered to *college block sections* beginning in the eighth grade and follow a prescribed course of study (with provisions for some "electives") until they are graduated. The criteria for selecting these students are:

1. *Standardized test scores.* A pupil must have an I.Q. of 119 or more and 4+ or better in other standardized tests administered in the Philadelphia school system.
2. *Grades and teachers' recommendations.* Students must earn an A or B in each major subject and be recommended for the program by his teachers.

At the end of the semester each student's work is carefully reviewed and evaluated. Failure to benefit from the program may result in removal from it. A few who have demonstrated their right to be in the block-roster program are added.

Students who do not measure up to the college block requirements but who excel in one or more subjects, based on grades and teachers' recommendations, are rostered to *accelerated classes* in these subjects.

Program of Studies for College Block Classes

As stated, students in these classes take the academic course—four years of English, one year of world history, two years of American History and Government (including economics and social problems), two or more years of a foreign language, three or more years of mathematics, and two or more years of science. Boys and girls especially interested in mathematics and/or science are encouraged to take physics, solid geometry, trigonometry, advanced mathematics, and advanced science. Through electives and/or fifth majors, students are also encouraged to take courses in music and the arts (vocational and fine arts) as well as

additional courses in foreign languages and history.

Wherever possible and practicable, modification of the standard programs have been made to serve better the educational needs of the academically talented boys and girls. In mathematics, for example, the program for the college block classes was modified as follows:

- Grades 8A and 8B — Algebra 1 and 2
- Grades 9A and 9B — Geometry 1 and 2
- Grades 10A and 10B — Algebra 3 and 4
- Grades 11A and 11B — Solid Geometry and Plane Trigonometry
- Grades 12A and 12B — Analytic Geometry and Calculus

Several minor mathematics subjects are also offered, namely:

Algebra prep (two periods a week—concurrent with geometry 2) which serves as a review of Algebra 1 and 2.

College bound math. (one period a week for 12A students) which reviews test taking procedures.

Slide-rule (two periods a week) offered each term.

In addition, two informal programs (clubs) are in operation. These are designed to stimulate theoretical interest in mathematics and its practical application (for prospective engineers).

Another example of modification of the standard program is in the foreign languages, where Latin 1 and 2 are offered in grade 8. By beginning the study of foreign languages one year earlier, the students are enabled, if it seems desirable, to study an additional language or continue the study of the foreign language of their choice for an extra year.

The teachers of the Foreign Language Department are on the alert to recognize students who show promise in the written and in the spoken language in classes at all levels. They encourage these students to extend and broaden their knowledge of the language and their contact with it, and to increase their facility with the spoken and the written language.

Since the greatest heterogeneity of student ability is within the group studying Spanish, accelerated classes from Spanish 1 through

Spanish 4 have been established. Students are selected for these classes on the basis of class performance and upon the recommendation of the teacher. In the other language classes individual programs are planned for the gifted student.

The accelerated Spanish class differs from the regular class in scope of learning and in degree of performance. While all students are expected to understand, speak, read, and write the foreign language and have some knowledge of the foreign culture, the level and degree of achievement is higher for the gifted student. His skill of recall is challenged more. He is expected to know more about the analysis of language structure. He is encouraged to read independently in the foreign language and in English. He is expected to be capable of finer interpretations of authors' meanings. The teachers prepare lists of collateral reading in the foreign language for the gifted students. The material read is checked by means of tests and reports.

Students are encouraged to join the foreign language conversation classes and the clubs which provide additional experience in hearing and speaking the foreign language. A multi-lingual magazine is published once a year by the students. It contains original poems, essays, stories, crossword puzzles, riddles, and news items which have been written by the students.

Students also take part in programs sponsored by the various teacher language organizations—acting in plays, singing, playing an instrument, or reciting poems. In certain situations, the able student can take over classes in the foreign language department and teach the lesson. These students also tutor less able students on the school premises or at home. This is done also in other subject areas.

In the other subject areas, also, in science, English, and social studies, the courses of study have been geared for more intensive coverage. In science, the material is covered in more detail and more difficult concepts are discussed. Individual research projects are required of each student. In the physical sciences the problem approach is stressed.

There are also one period minor subjects offered for additional work in problems. The laboratories are available for any special experimental work.

In English and in the social studies the emphasis is on depth as well as breadth of coverage. Critical analysis and creative writing are also stressed.

All departments are continually increasing instructional and testing materials and adding books and pamphlets for reading, reference and research.

Advanced Placement

Able students are invited to participate in the local and national competitive examinations. They are also encouraged to prepare for the Advanced Placement Program Examinations. Teachers are now working individually with such students. In some instances, a student is helped individually by a teacher and is advanced, after examination, to the next grade level in a foreign language, mathematics, or science. It should be noted that because of the problem of Carnegie units, the student does not receive credit for the level skipped; he does, however, have the satisfaction of challenging achievement and experience.

Teaching the Academically Talented — Selections of Teachers

The key to the success of any program for the academically talented, after proper identification and selection of students have been made, is the teacher. It is what the teacher does with the course of study, how he conducts his classroom, what inspiration he is able to provide, and what the student does as a result of what goes on in the classroom that determines the degree of progress the students will make toward the aforementioned goals.

A fortuitous combination of personal and academic qualification is necessary for teaching the academically talented. Some of these are:

1. A broad general background in the cultural areas would be desirable. It is hoped that this deepens and sensitizes the teacher's awareness of the needs of his student.

2. In addition to subject matter the teacher should have a background in adolescent psychology and general psychology. This is to enable him to better understand the sometimes enigmatic behavior of the youthful gifted.
3. The brightest child should be met on his own ground; however, the teacher should be able to say, "I don't know."
4. The ability to be objective is essential. And yet, in such fields as the social studies, teachers should have the character to call some things wrong.
5. The teacher of the gifted must appreciate their gifts and have a missionary type zeal to develop those gifts.
6. A sense of humor, the ability to occasionally give it the "light touch" is very helpful.
7. The teacher must be a "task master" who understands that even the gifted do not operate automatically and that they must be stimulated and motivated. He must also be a disciplinarian and be capable of applying pressure to the student if that seems necessary.

Teaching Techniques

All good or creative teaching necessitates a keen sensitivity to pupil needs. Translated into real teaching and learning situations it embraces specific activities on the part of both the teacher and the pupil. Following are some of those activities.

Teacher Activities

1. Professional reading
2. Preparation of notes for lecture and other classroom activities.
3. Preparation of material for pupil activities in and out of class, such as: appropriate home assignments, weekly reports, compositions, essay tests, objective tests.
4. Reading and grading of students' work.
5. Conducting classroom discussions.
6. Conferences with members of faculty.
7. Conferences with students.

Pupil Activities

In School

1. Note-taking from lectures and reading material
2. Intelligent listening.
3. Solving problems.
4. Classroom recitation, discussions, drill.
5. Group discussions, dramatizations.
6. Oral reports.
7. Conference with teacher.
8. Committee projects.

Out of School

1. Written reports, book reviews, essays.
2. Review and study of material covered in class.

3. Research in library, museums, etc.
4. Reading.
5. Surveys, interviews, trips.
6. Correspondence.
7. Original creations.

Testing, Evaluating, Grading

An integral function of teaching is testing, evaluating, and grading of students. As objective as a teacher might wish it to be, it is an area subject to both subjective and objective pitfalls. Some of the problems encountered in connection with this matter are to be found in such questions as: What constitutes a good objective test? Are standardized tests better than teacher-constructed objective tests? How can the teacher avoid subjective influences in evaluating an essay type test? How can the grading system be adapted to give the proper weighting to students in accelerated or honor classes and to students in regular classes?

In schools where the academically talented students are placed in "honor" or accelerated classes, the situation often arises where students of lower ability, in regular classes, receive grades higher than the more able students, chiefly because the teacher of the honor classes sets up higher standards of achievement. These more able students (and their parents) frequently object to being rostered to these honor classes for the reason that it may lessen their chance of winning a scholarship. (In Philadelphia, Board of Education Scholarships are awarded on the basis of class rank.) Both in fairness to the academically talented students who are rostered to college block classes, and with the view of maintaining a just grading system, teachers are asked to be especially *evaluating grading conscious*. As a general school policy, also, no student in a regular class may be given a grade above 92 in a subject in which there is a college block or an accelerated class. In addition, students in these latter classes have three points added to their final grades. Finally, for purposes of determining rank order in the graduating class, there is added to the student's grade another measure, the score the student achieves in a standardized aptitude test administered in

12B. The weight given to the measure varies between 15 and 25 per cent, depending on the type of test.

Extra and Co-Curricular Programs for the Academically Talented

In addition to the various clubs and other student activities, such as the math. and language clubs already described, school newspaper, dramatic, music and art clubs, Lincoln High School has been offering a unique one period a week lecture course in the humanities and the sciences to the 10th and 11th grade college block students. The course is called *Exploring the World of Knowledge*. The course carries no requirements and offers no credit. Each of the lecturers, a member of the faculty, has been invited or volunteers to participate in the program because of his special interest or talents in a given area of knowledge. Two lecture periods are devoted to each subject area scheduled. Some of the topics covered in the course have been: Man and his Environment; Evolution of Number; the Fine Arts in Everyday Life; Great Men of Science; Music in Everyday Life; Foreign Language Cultures; Latin Classical Poets; Persistent Great Issues; Probers of the Human Mind; Explorations in Astronomy; Greek Philosophers; and Semantics.

Last term, a seminar on Hindu Culture was introduced in the Music Department. In addition to lectures by the teacher in charge, arrangement had been made for outstanding guest lecturers, visits to museums and to the main branch of the Philadelphia Library. The students were required to select and work on an individual project having to do with Hindu culture. Eighteen students volunteered for the course, which ran daily until 4:00 P.M. and frequently into the early evening hours. The English department collaborated in connection with the grading of the final student reports.

Summary

Described in these pages are the philosophy, goals, aspirations, and limitations, as well as the actual content of the program for the education of the academically talented at

the Abraham Lincoln High School. Earlier the statement was made that the teacher is the key to the success of any program of education. That is true, but in addition to the key, there must be someone to turn the key. That means leadership. The provision, the inspiration, and much of the laborious thinking and actual work that went into the planning and organizing of this program for the academically talented stems from the interest and devotion of an unusually capable faculty,

many of whom have made important contributions to the program.

¹I am indebted to the following persons in the preparation of this statement: Mr. Charles H. Williams, Principal; Mrs. Eleanore Sandstrom, Head of Department, Foreign Languages; Mr. Karl Kalman, Head of Department, Mathematics; Mr. David Harr, Head of Department, Social Studies; Mr. Harry Kuner, Chairman of Department, Science; Mr. Henry Weisberg, Chairman of Department, English; Miss Frances Snyder, Teacher, Music; Mr. Leon Sharlip, Teacher, Social Studies; Mr. Raymond Linden, Teacher, Social Studies; Mr. David Weinberg, Teacher, Social Studies.

Instructional Materials

BY IRWIN ECKHAUSER
Washington Junior High School
Mt. Vernon, New York

NEW MATERIALS

Road Maps of Industry. These charts — printed in several colors measuring 8½ x 11 inches and punched for filing, deal with significant current developments in the broad field of economics. Write to National Industrial Conference Board, 460 Park Ave., New York.

South Asia Packet. An excellent packet of study materials, maps, charts, and reference lists dealing with four countries of South Asia (India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Nepal) is available for \$2.00 from the Asia Society Inc., 18 E. 50th St., New York 22, N. Y.

Source List of Audio Visual Materials on the Middle Atlantic States. This is the latest bulletin in the publication program of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies. It includes lists of motion pictures, filmstrips, maps, and names and addresses of sources. Write to Bank Street College of Education, 69 Bank St., New York 14, N. Y.

Teacher's Packet on Korea. This may be secured free of charge from the Korean Pacific Press, 1828 Jefferson Place, N.W., Wash., D. C. It contains a wealth of information on Korea's history, geography, culture, religion, economics, and politics.

FILMS

Tomorrow's Trees. 30 min. Free. Weyerhaeuser Timber Co., Tacoma, Washington. Shows the story of modern forestry in the Pacific Northwest. Color movies include scenes taken from the top of a 250-foot Douglas fir tree as it is felled, and from a helicopter planting seeds.

Workshop for Peace. 29 min. Sale/rental. Contemporary Films, Inc., 267 W. 25th Street, New York, N. Y. Depicts a complete tour of U. N. Headquarters in New York, including the meeting halls of the General Assembly, the Trusteeship Council, the Economic and Social Council.

Out. 25 min. Sale/rental. Contemporary Films, Inc. Shows the flight of one fatherless family from Hungary to Austria in the 1956 uprising.

Question in Togoland. 20 min. Color. Sale/rental. Contemporary Films, Inc. A pictorial report showing how U.N.-supervised plebiscites brought Togoland into the newly-formed state of Ghana, with a close view also of life in this remote African region.

Challenge in the Desert. 16 min. Sale/rental. Contemporary Films, Inc. Shows redevelopment in Libya, which has received U. N. technical assistance in the fields of

health, agriculture, education, technical training, and public administration.

Problems of the Middle East. 21 min. B&W or color. Sale/rental. Atlantis Productions, Inc., 7967 Sunset Boulevard, Hollywood 46, Cal. Explains the basic forces molding the destiny of the Middle East. Shows the common humanity of the Middle Eastern peoples, despite the variety of cultural patterns.

Himalaya: Life on the Roof of the World. 22 min. B & W or color. Sale/rental. Atlantis Productions, Inc. Relates the importance of the Himalaya Mountains and Tibet to the geography, economy and culture of Asia. Depicts the unity of mountain civilization, as it extends for two thousand miles into the heartland of Asia, tempered by influences from Tibet, China, India and Persia.

FILMSTRIPS

Divided Germany: Pivot of the Cold War. 57 fr. Black and white. Sale. N. Y. Times, 229 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y. Takes up Germany as the focal point where Russia and the West face each other directly and discusses the dangers to world peace in the conflict over the divided nations originating in the occupation by the Allies after World War II. Accompanying

the filmstrip is a discussion manual that reproduces each frame and adds below it discussion questions related to sections of supplementary information. The manual also has a general introduction to the subject, discussion questions related to sections of the filmstrip, suggested activities and suggested readings.

Structure for Peace: How the U. N. Works. 65 fr. Sale. Stanbow Productions, Inc., Valhalla, N. Y. Explains the structure and functions of the six organs of the U. N. (the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice, and the Secretariat). Each organ is presented in a separate sequence.

Economic Development in Africa. 44 fr. Sale. Stanbow Productions, Inc. A pictorial review of some of the main economic developments in the vast continent of Africa, where countries are now working together through the U. N. Regional Economic Commission for Africa.

The Integration Issue. 57 fr. Black and white. Sale. N. Y. Times, 229 W. 43rd St., New York, N. Y. It charts the present pattern of adjustment to America's racial problems and traces the history and background of a century of struggle.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

DAVID W. HARR

The Story of Human Emotions: From a Teen Age Viewpoint. By George M. Lott. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. 228. \$4.95.

This is, indeed, a delightful book, prepared by a psychiatrist with years of experience in mental hygiene, covering the problems and perplexities of normal human experience—from the care of the small child, through the stormy rebellion of adolescence, to the more

common neuroses from which so many adults suffer; the second half of the book describes how and why human emotions get out of control, "Clues to Success in Influencing Others," and "The Nature of Man—His Powers and Weaknesses."

Dr. Lott says nothing new, or what is not known to the social scientist, and especially the sociologist and psychologist and social psychologist. But what he says, he says well

and to the point. Throughout he demonstrates his professional training. We can safely say that he has repaired to a considerable degree the damage imposed upon the American public by such works as *How to Make Friends and Influence People*. In fact, even the social scientist will find his book valuable and entertaining.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

The United States. By Ralph Steen. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1959. Pp. 568, \$4.68.

This senior high text in U. S. history allots approximately 60 per cent of its content to the period through the Civil War and reconstruction and 40 per cent to the period since reconstruction. The volume offers 36 chapters organized into nine study units:

1. Europeans in a New World
2. A New Country Is Born
3. The Federal Union
4. Democracy and Expansion
5. An American Tragedy
6. An Era of Great Achievement
7. Progressivism and Idealism
8. Prosperity, Depression, and Reform
9. America Leads the Free World

End-of-chapter teaching aids consist of a comprehensive series of study questions developed around the chapter outline; lists of persons, places, and terms; topics for class discussion; and interesting things to do. The book concludes with the Declaration and the Constitution.

The World's History. By Frederic C. Lane and Erling M. Hunt. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1959. Pp. 768, \$4.84.

The most striking feature of this third edition of a widely-used textbook for the senior high world history course is its focus on the functional values of history. It presents not only the broad truths but also the summary explanations and reasons for the pressing headlines of today's and tomorrow's newspapers.

The World's History, while essentially

chronological, presents the past in ten units of study, each of which deals with a major movement or force, and 45 chapters, each of which deals with significant events within the unit framework. Units included are as follows:

1. Civilizations Begin in Four River Valleys and Spread through the Ancient World.
2. The Ideal of Citizenship Forms in Greece and Rome.
3. Religions Take Leadership in Europe, Asia, and Africa.
4. Classes Divide the Societies of Medieval Europe and the East.
5. The West Takes the Lead as the Modern Age Begins.
6. The West Divides into Independent European and American Nations.
7. Democracy Grows in the Western Nations.
8. Scientific Thinking and Machinery Revolutionize Everyday Living.
9. Imperialism and Imitation Spread Western Ways Around the World.
10. World-Wide Tensions Challenge the West.

There is strong emphasis on map and timelines study throughout the book. End-of-chapter aids include these sections: "A Look Back," "Check Your Facts," and "Things to Do." Each unit concludes with bibliographies of additional readings.

Human Resources: The Wealth of a Nation. By Eli Ginzberg. Simon and Schuster, New York: 1958. 170 pp.

Through the smoke of political controversy can be detected a pattern of growing concern over a cluster of related problems — education, scientific research, delinquency, suburban development and urban redevelopment. Despite their particular complexities, all these can be recognized as facets of the same general social problem, the development of human resources. Dr. Ginzberg's volume is a timely and authoritative contribution to the mounting discussion of this basic problem.

The book is an expansion of three 1957 lectures at Berkeley and represents an overall view of the problem of the director of the several special studies of the Conservation of Human Resources Project at Columbia for the past eight years. It is timely also because it coincides with the current re-evaluation of the role of the public sector of the economy. Out of this revaluation seems to be growing an increased recognition of the need for an explicit national policy on human resources. Dr. Ginzberg's well-known study of Adam Smith is appropriate background for such work, as Smith was one of the first to see clearly that the most important determinant of the wealth of a nation is the "skill, dexterity, and judgment with which its labor is generally applied."

Until recently (the Second World War may be taken as a convenient watershed) there has been little recognition of need for a "manpower policy." Our policy was one of no policy, of a reliance on "natural" forces, of an acceptance of whatever pattern of distribution of manpower emerged from the play of competitive market forces. If there was a need for more engineers, there would be a differential return to engineers which would bring forth more recruits to engineering. In turn this would suggest more facilities for engineering training.

Quite apparently this acceptance of whatever pattern emerges naturally is now being questioned and seen as inadequate. Social investment in education, and in the whole range of public services which will augment the "skill, dexterity, and judgment" of the nation's "labor," will not take place automatically in response to needs. It will result only from prior and conscious decision to allocate resources publicly to meet these foreseen needs. This book attempts to set forth the urgent need for a deliberate policy regarding human resources and the reasons which justify an explicit program. This is a worthy purpose, convincingly argued in detail from the studies done under his direction.

Two criticisms are suggested. The discussion tends to be disjointed and overly anecdotal and does not quite succeed in telling us just what such a program would be—a disappointment indeed in view of Dr. Ginzberg's qualifications.

And less emphasis could be placed on "cold war" necessities. To improve the quality of human resources is an objective worthy for its own sake. Nor is it necessary to over-stress the improvement of productivity which would result. The development of human potentials can be justified intrinsically, as an end, not as a means, especially in an economy so far above subsistence. One could ask for more recognition of this from Dr. Ginzberg. But his book is a valuable addition to the argument that private enterprise and the free market, left to themselves, are not sufficient for the conservation and development of human resources.

JOHN H. DALTON

University of Maryland
College Park
Maryland

Contemporary Sociology. Edited by Joseph S. Roucek. New York: Philosophical Library, c. 1958. Pp. xii, 1209. \$12.00.

A brief review can record only impressions of such an encyclopedic book as this. The list of sixty authors includes, among the Americans at least, many lesser known professional sociologists. In the introductory chapter, the "framework" for the book, Carle C. Zimmerman rejects much of contemporary sociology, with its study of status, roles, institutions, and social systems; claims Arnold Toynbee for sociology, and lauds Toynbee and Sorokin because they deal with the only true concern of sociologists—namely, social change; and deplores the difficulties the great theorists encounter in finding publishers.

Despite this introduction, the twenty-three chapters of Part II cover the usual divisions of the field of sociology as it is understood in the United States today—among them, community, race, population, social psychology, urban, rural, sociometry, etc. An exception is the patently gratuitous chapter "Sociology and American Catholics" (Why

not also a chapter on, for example, "Sociology and American Negroes"?). Part III, "Some Applications of Sociology," consists of eleven chapters devoted to such topics as bureaucracy and the professions, economic organization, stratification, social work, public opinion and propaganda, and military sociology. Part IV consists of twenty-three chapters on "Trends Abroad"; countries covered range from Canada and the leading European countries to smaller European countries, Israel, Africa, Indonesia, China, Japan, etc. Part V, "Some Critical Comments," consists entirely of one chapter by Sorokin entitled "Physicalist and Mechanistic School," largely a renewal of the attack on most of contemporary sociology. All the chapters except Sorokin's have a bibliography, and most have copious footnotes. The index provides only names. There are short biographies of the various authors, though they show little uniformity in either length or coverage. All in all, the book provides a tremendous amount of information.

Now, for some of the impressions. How, in the circumstances set forth in the first chapter, Sorokin and Toynbee have, as Zimmerman says, "captured the lay sociological public," is not clear. In any case, is the "lay public" of any field a very reliable critic? Again, the logic of the differentiation made in assigning topics to Parts II and III of the book escapes this reviewer. Furthermore, whatever the virtues in the criticism contained in Part V, and there are many that are justified, it would seem that other schools might rightfully seek "equal time" to reply. The lack of coordination characterizing the book is apparent in Sorokin's reference to theories said to be discussed in Zimmerman's introductory chapter that are not so much as mentioned there.

Finally, this reviewer had difficulty rushing his attention beyond the growing verification of his first impression that this is a very badly edited book. An undergraduate term paper in any of his courses if done no better would be heavily downgraded, or more likely would be returned to the student for editing before being accepted at all. The

book seems to have reached publication in innocence of so elementary an editing tool as a style book. Capitalization, hyphenation, abbreviations, indentations, and numerous usages vary erratically not only from chapter to chapter but in the same bibliography. Examples of incorrect paging are to be found, as well as mistakes in the titles of books, mistakes in grammar, references that do not indicate the edition used, or that by the confusion of bibliographical data get the wrong edition and the wrong dates together. Editors are referred to in at least four different ways, and sometimes are not mentioned at all, leaving the reader to infer that editors are authors. In one place, a publication date that could easily be verified in *The Cumulative Book Index*, for example, is left simply as "(19—)"—as if an author's rough notes were simply handed over to the printer to appear in print without benefit of either checking or proofreading.

Despite the massive and exacting detail in producing so formidable a work, there are standards of excellence in publication, and they should be adhered to.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Md.

Towards A New World. By Richard Lombardi, S.J. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xvi, 276. \$6.00.

This volume outlines a plan for the creation of a better world in which militant Catholicism assumes an important role. Father Lombardi is not completely utopian. He recognizes that there can be no real change in the social order unless the whole mass of humanity wants a change. Widespread Christian evangelization will lead the way. Rediscovery of the Gospel and its ideal of social justice will guide the action of individuals and the State. Christianity will diminish the distance between men and bring them together. The recent overtures of Pope John XXIII for union among Christians and his call for an ecumenical conference for this purpose give added significance to the contents of this book.

The evangelical emphasis in this book limits its value for the pragmatic political scientist who cannot understand the assertion that "only by men advanced in holiness can the world be saved." Significant is the author's plan for the reform of organized Catholicism. His plan for the salvation of the whole modern world is admittedly a piece of religious exaltation. Father Lombardi's "Movement for a Better World" and his "Crusade of Love" will be challenged by more practical proposals. No one can doubt, however, the author's assertion "that a world different from the one of today has got to be built up. . . . For lack of a common plan agreed on for the good of all, inexhaustible resources are proving of little benefit to the great mass of mankind; and, in many cases, are being used for ruin and destruction."

LOUIS M. VANARIA

State University of New York
Teachers College at Cortland, New York

Lenin on the Question of Nationality. By Alfred D. Low. New York: Bookman Associates, 1958. Pp. vii, 193. \$4.00.

This interesting and penetrating analysis of Lenin's ideas on the problem of nationality reflects a thorough familiarity with the basic writings of the noted Bolshevik leader. In tracing the origin and growth of these ideas, the author points out that they were fully developed by World War I. Later modifications, resulting from the impact of the Revolution, indicated "a shift of emphasis rather than an outright change." (p. 11.)

The pre-Revolutionary leaders were not united among themselves in their approach to this perplexing problem, particularly as it related to the multinational groups within Russia and to the numerous subject peoples within the disintegrating Hapsburg Empire. On the extreme Left—led by such internationalists as Bukharin and Radek—there was a tendency to reject all concessions to national aspirations for self-determination. They regarded national ambitions and rivalries as manifestations of capitalist exploitation, which would disappear with the spread of

the proletarian revolution and ultimately give way to a new cosmopolitan outlook. In opposition to this group, the more moderate and realistic leaders of the Right—with the Austrian socialists, Otto Bauer and Karl Renner, as the main exponents—advocated the extension of cultural autonomy and equality to all national groups. They maintained that, with the end of capitalism, the sources of friction among the diverse nationalities would be removed.

In theory, at least, Lenin was much closer to the first group. He, too, had little sympathy for the concepts of "nationalism" and "national culture," regarding them as evil by-products of capitalism. He looked forward to the day when all national groups, under the influence of the world revolution, would be replaced by a "cosmopolitan" classless society. Unlike the adherents of the Left, however, he insisted that the problem of nationality should be solved, not by ignoring it, but by harnessing the dynamic force of nationalism in the interest of the world revolution.

For tactical reasons, then, Lenin formulated the slogan of "the right to self-determination," which included the right to secede. Such a slogan, in his opinion, would serve the double purpose of strengthening the appeal of communism among oppressed peoples everywhere and of providing opportunities for the leaders of the proletariat to direct the currents of nationalism into revolutionary channels. On closer analysis, the "right to self-determination"—particularly after the success of the October Revolution in Russia—involved not only the right of local revolutionary leaders to seize control of nationalist movements, but the right to link them—or, better, to make them subservient—to the goals of Soviet Russia.

The author believes that any appraisal of Lenin's thought on nationality lends "no strength either to Stalinism and its claim to preeminence of the Great Russians in the U.S.S.R. as well as throughout the entire communist world, or to those dedicated to the concept of genuine equality in the proletarian multinational realm and among the

different sovereign socialist national states." (p. 15.) In spite of Yugoslavia's defection from the U.S.S.R.—which Tito justified on the basis of Lenin's ideas of self-determination—and in spite of the revival of Leninism under Khrushchev, the present rulers of Moscow continue to insist, as the brutal suppression of the Hungarian revolt of 1956 demonstrated, that the subject nationalities in the satellite states must look for guidance to the Kremlin.

This book furnishes a helpful background to an understanding of Soviet encouragement of national movements in the Near East, Africa, and Asia.

RICHARD H. BAUER

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The Education of the Individual. By Alfred Adler. New York: Philosophical Library, 1958. Pp. xvi, 143. \$3.50.

This volume is not directly concerned with public school curriculum construction and revision, the training of teachers, or the articulation of subject matter. Few educators will find the narrative and organization of the text inspiring or informative. The general reader will weary quickly from the many semantic exercises that absorb the author. One must agree with Carleton Washburne who writes in the foreword that the book requires us "to follow unaccustomed lines of thought, leading to conclusions sometimes a bit mystifying, sometimes brilliantly illuminating."

Consider the following excerpt: "To be lived as 'timeless,' an experience must be made relevant. New situations (NE) must be set off against background situations (E). If (NE1) looks very much like any (NE2), there is no vivid feeling that (E) can be made relevant to a wide range of widely different (NE's), and thus become 'timeless.' If (NE1) is a new acquaintance, not very different from (NE2), another new acquaintance who belongs to the fraternity of (NE1), (NE1) is remarkable only as another fraternity member. Old feelings involved in making new friends, will be rele-

vant to (NE1) and to (NE2), but (NE1) is almost like (NE2). How uninteresting!" (p. 97)

How uninteresting indeed, and designed to demonstrate only that self-seeking fraternity brothers are not aware of enough people outside their group.

Adler's major thesis is that education is a way of making people "greater," and "an individual is 'great' to the extent to which he makes it relatively easy for us to discern the relevance of his experiences to a 'relatively large' number of people. A person is 'great' because, through him 'relatively more' people are treated as ends. Through him, it becomes easy to treat them as ends." Adler concludes, therefore, that "an individual may be called educated inasmuch as it is relatively easy to ascertain his relevance for 'relatively more' people."

It may be faint praise to suggest that this volume will stimulate the thought processes of intellectuals. It may be pertinent to suggest, however, that many educational reformers need to examine closely their philosophical and theoretical orientation. "The individual is an end, not a means." Dr. Adler primarily is concerned with the meaning of this statement.

LOUIS M. VANARIA

State University of New York
State Teachers College at Cortland

A History of Our World. By Arthur E. R. Boak, Preston W. Slosson, Howard R. Anderson and Hall Bartlett. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1959. Pp. 850. \$5.28.

Richly illustrated, colorful, readable, *The History of Our World* is a new entry among texts for the senior high world history course. Thirty-five chapters of content are grouped into nine units of study, as follows:

1. Our World Has Roots in the Distant Past
2. Our Civilization Is Shaped by Peoples of East and West.
3. Western Europe Widens Its Horizons
4. Kingdoms Struggle for Power in Europe
5. Peoples in Western Europe Strive for Freedom and National Unity

6. Science and Industry Change the Western World
7. Western Imperialism Influences Many Parts of the World
8. World Conflicts Threaten to Destroy Civilization
9. The World Faces New Challenges

Each chapter includes several series of "check up" questions at transition points. In addition, end-of-chapter aids emphasize terms to understand; persons and things to identify; dates to know; and thought-provoking questions for discussion. Short sections on "Linking the Past and the Present" are an extremely useful feature of each chapter.

Perhaps even more useful to student and teacher alike is the "To Increase Your Understanding" section at the end of each unit of study. This section features a concise summary of unit content and carefully developed suggestions for individual or class research, activities, and projects. The text concludes with a reference section noting books for general use, books for each unit, and a list of important dates in the world's history.

An Introduction to Sociology. By Gladys Sellew, Paul Hanly Furfey, and William T. Gaughan. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. x, 589. \$6.50.

This book is presented as "frankly and intentionally a Catholic treatment" of introductory sociology, published under the imprimatur of the Archbishop of Washington. It is infused throughout with Catholic implications, references in a Catholic context (for example, references to religious groups appear invariably to mention Catholics first—as "Catholics, Protestants, and Jews"; and references to the development of social work stress the contributions of St. Francis and St. Vincent de Paul, with scarcely any recognition of the great humanitarian movements of the nineteenth century), and explanations and applications of the Catholic interpretation. Catholic interpretation is especially evident, as might be expected, in the material on the family, religion, religion and science,

education, population, and human evolution. Two sample statements indicate the measure of the book's values: "The Catholic religion, since it is true, cannot conflict with science. . . . Investigation in both the physical and social sciences confirms the tenets of the true religion." "Science can never be in opposition to revealed religion."

Within the context indicated above, the coverage of sociological concepts is commendably wide, and many data from the best research studies in the field are woven into the book. There seems, however, to be considerable confusion about the concepts of primary group and secondary group, and of society and association. The outline of the book is conventional; it consists of twenty-seven chapters in six Parts: Sociology: The Study of Society, Culture and Cultural Change, Man's Social Nature, Social Interaction, Social Organization and Structure, and Population and the Community. It reads easily and is replete with concrete examples, facts that should appeal to the beginning students for whom the authors have designed it. Each chapter is followed by questions and topics for discussion and a briefly annotated bibliography. The volume is attractively turned out, with many excellent illustrations.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

The Cultured Man. By Ashley Montagu. Cleveland: World Publishing Company, 1958. Pp. 284. \$3.95.

He then offers a 200-page mishmash of 50 quizzes, totaling 1500 separate questions, complete with answers and rating scale, to help the reader discover his culture quotient.

This completely negates the effect of the introductory essay and creates the impression that the author is bidding for an invitation to the television quiz shows.

Ashley Montagu, British anthropologist, offers here a 57-page essay on culture in which he says, and says very well those things that a cultured British scholar might be expected to say on this subject.

The effect might be different if the quizzes were good quizzes. Of the thirty items in American History half simply ask for a date (12. What is the date of the first Continental Congress? 13. What are the dates of the War for Independence? 14. Articles of Confederation were drawn up in the year? 15. The date of Cornwallis' surrender?, etc.)

One item in the American History section that clearly suggests the quiz-kid type of program is #20: "Who were the first reigning European sovereigns to set foot on American soil?"

This reader found it impossible to establish sympathetic rapport after question #2. Question: "The first white settlement was at." Answer: "The first white settlement in America was at Roanoke Island, N. C., in 1585."

DONALD W. ROBINSON

Carlmont High School
Belmont, California

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS

ARTICLES

"Current Challenge to Today's Public Schools," *Congressional Digest*, August-September, 1958.

PAMPHLETS

Study resources prepared by the United States Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

1. *Alaska—1958-59*. Price 20 cents.
2. *Mid-Century Alaska*. Price \$1.00.
3. *Information Relative to the Use and Disposal of Public Lands and Resources in Alaska*. Price 20 cents.
4. *Mount McKinley National Park, Alaska*. Price 10 cents.
5. *Katmai National Monument, Alaska*. Price 5 cents.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Trading Stamp Practice and Pricing Policy.

By Albert Haring and Wallace O. Yoder, Editors. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Business Research, University of Indiana, 1959. Pp. vi, 390. \$6.00.

American Foreign Affairs. A Guide to Inter-

a brilliant new
presentation of world
history for high schools



The History of Our World

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national Affairs. By William Sytle Schurz. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1959. Pp. xi, 265. \$4.50.

The Unity of Mankind. A Course of Selective Reading. By T. J. Haarhoff. Edinburgh, Scotland: Rank R. Clark, Limited, 1959. Pp. v, 323. \$4.00.

Strands from the Weaving. By Lucretia G. Conier. New York: Vantage Press, 1959. Pp. ii, 73. \$2.95.

Group Psycho-Analysis. By B. Bohdan Wasell. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xii, 306. \$3.75.

Our American Government. By Edith E. Starratt and Morris Lewenstein. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1959. Pp. xxii, 516. \$3.54.

Our World Through The Ages. By Nathaniel Platt and Muriel Jean Drummond. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1959. Pp. xxi, 699. \$4.11.

The Commonwealth Story. By F. Alexander.

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(Continued from page 202)

many children. The second requisite is to encourage him to go as far beyond the Common curriculum as possible, in the direction that will be of greatest use both to him and to society.

To require every child to study Euclid, or French, or Physics, or to compel him to read *Hamlet* or *L'Allegro*, would give our educational program a fine surface patina of culture and learning. But it would give America few if any more nuclear physicists or architects or great poets than it now has. On the

contrary, it would simply drive a large portion of the teen-age population out of school and onto the streets, untouched by even a minimum education, and resentful of the whole concept of formal schooling.

What we need is not more incompetent engineers and chemists, but more competent average citizens. We must try to teach young people to do better those things which they are able and willing to do. Those who are bright and eager can and should be led to rarefied heights; those who are not (and have our critics ever really met them?) must be encouraged to do their best at their own level. It is the quality of the learning rather than the difficulty of the subject learned, which should be the school's first concern. One mold cannot fit all minds or even a large majority of them. A good school provides as many molds as possible, and uses them with as little human waste as possible. That is democratic education.

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